A NEW

Geographical, Hiſtorical, and Commercial

GRAMMAR;

AND

PRESENT STATE

OF THE SEVERAL

KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING

I. The Figures, Motions, and Diſtances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian Syſtem and the lateſt Obſervations.

II. A general View of the Earth conſidered as a Planet; with ſeveral uſeful Geographical Definitions and Problems.

III. The grand Diviſions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Iſlands.

IV. The Situation and Extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies.

V. Their Climate, Air, Soil, vegetable Productions, Metals, Minerals, natural Curioſities, Seas, Rivers, Bays, Capes, Promontories, and Lakes.

VI. The Birds and Beaſts peculiar to each Country.

VII. Obſervations on the Changes that have been any where obſerved upon the Face of Nature ſince the moſt early Periods of Hiſtory.

VIII. The Hiſtory and Origin of Nations: their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, naval and military Strength.

IX. The Genius, Manners, Cuſtoms, and Habits of the People.

X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.

XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curioſities.

XII. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Diſtances of principal Places from London.

XIII. A General Index.

WITH

A TABLE of the COINS of all Nations, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY.

By WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Eſq.

ILLUSTRATED WITH

A NEW AND CORRECT SET OF MAPS,

Engraved by Mr. KITCHIN, Geographer.

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THE

PREFACE.

TO a man ſincerely intereſted in the welfare of ſociety and of his country, it muſt be particularly agreeable to reflect on the rapid progreſs, and general diffuſion of learning and civility, which, within the preſent age, have taken place in Great-Britain. Whatever may be the caſe in ſome other kingdoms of Europe, we, in this iſland, may boaſt of our ſuperiority to thoſe illiberal prejudices, which not only cramp the genius, but ſour the temper of man, and diſturb all the agreeable intercourſe of ſociety. Among us, learning is no longer confined within the ſchools of the philoſophers, or the courts of the great; but, like all the greateſt advantages which heaven has beſtowed on mankind, it is become as univerſal as it is uſeful.

This general diffuſion of knowledge is one effect of that happy conſtitution of government, which, towards the cloſe of the laſt century, was confirmed to us, and which conſtitutes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people poſſeſs little wealth, have little power, and conſequently meet with little reſpect; in Great-Britain the people are opulent, have great influence, and claim, of courſe, a proper ſhare of attention. To their improvement, therefore, men of letters have lately directed their ſtudies; as the great body of the people, no leſs than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, have an acknowledged title to be amuſed and inſtructed. Books have been diveſted of the terms of the ſchools, reduced from that ſize which ſuited only the purſes of the rich, and the avocations of the ſtudious; and adapted to perſons of more ordinary fortunes, whoſe attachment to other purſuits admitted of little leiſure for thoſe of knowledge. It is to books of this kind more than to the works of our Bacons, our Lockes, and our Newtons, that the generality of our countrymen owe that ſuperior improvement, which diſtinguiſhes them from the lower ranks of men in all other countries. To promote and advance this im-

provement, is the principal design of our present undertaking. No subject appears more interesting than that we have chosen, and none seems capable of being handled in a manner that may render it more generally useful.

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the sublimest pursuit of mankind, it must be allowed, is that which most nearly interests them, and to which their abilities are best adapted. And Books of Geography, which describe the situation, extent, soil, and productions of kingdoms; the genius, manners, religion, government, commerce, sciences, and arts of all the inhabitants upon earth, promise the best assistance for attaining this knowledge.

The Compendium of Geography, we now offer to the public, differs in many particulars from other books on that subject. Besides exhibiting an easy, distinct, and systematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author has attempted to render the following performance, an instructive, though compendious detail of the general history of the world. The character of nations depends on a succession of a great many circumstances which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connection between the learning, the commerce, the government, &c. of a state, than most people seem to apprehend. In a work of this kind, which pretends to include moral, or political, as well as natural geography, no one of these objects should pass unnoticed. The omission of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only interesting in itself, but which is absolutely necessary for enabling us to form an adequate and comprehensive notion of the subject in general. We have thought it necessary, therefore, to add a new article to this work, which comprehends the history and present state of learning, in the several countries we describe, with the characters of such persons as have been most eminent in the various departments of letters and philosophy. This subject will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requisite, when we consider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. These objects, indeed, till of late, seldom found a place in geographical performances; and, even where they have been introduced, are by no means handled in an entertaining or instructive manner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting-

ing, ſolely under the influence of avarice, the paſſion which firſt induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and were indeed ill-qualified to collect ſuch materials as are proper for gratifying our curioſity, with regard to theſe particulars. The geographer then, who could only employ the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any important information upon ſuch ſubjects. In the courſe of the preſent century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirſt for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led many into diſtant lands. Theſe they have explored with a philoſophic attention; and by laying open the internal ſprings of action, by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural and ſtriking picture of human manners, under the various ſtages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifeſt impropriety, we could not but avail ourſelves of their labours, by means of which, we have been enabled to give a more copious, and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

In conſidering the preſent ſtate of nations, few circumſtances are of more importance than their mutual intercourſe. This is chiefly brought about by commerce, the prime mover in the œconomy of modern ſtates, and of which therefore we have never loſt ſight in the preſent undertaking.

We are ſenſible that a reader could not examine the preſent ſtate of nations with much entertainment or inſtruction, unleſs he was alſo made acquainted with their ſituation during the preceding ages, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have aſſumed their preſent form and appearance. This conſtitutes the hiſtorical part of our Work; a department which we have endeavoured to execute in a manner entirely new. Inſtead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of news-paper occurrences, occurrences no way connected with one another, or with the general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only ſuch facts as are intereſting, either in themſelves, or from their relation to objects of importance. Inſtead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the hiſtory of each country, ſuch an epitome as may be read with equal pleaſure and advantage, and which may be conſidered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

Having, through the whole of the work, mentioned the antient names of countries, and in treating of their particular hiſtory ſome-

times carried our reſearches beyond the limits of modern times, we have thought it neceſſary, for the ſatisfaction of ſuch readers as are unacquainted with claſſical learning, to begin our hiſtorical Introduction with the remote ages of antiquity. By inſerting an account of the antient world in a book of geography, we afford an opportunity to the reader, of comparing together not only the manners, government, and arts of different nations, as they now appear, but as they ſubſiſted in antient ages; which exhibiting a general map, as it were, of the hiſtory of mankind, renders our work more complete than any geographical treatiſe extant.

In the execution of our deſign, we have all along endeavoured to obſerve order and perſpicuity. Elegance we have ſacrificed to brevity. Happy to catch the leading features which diſtinguiſh the characters of nations, and by a few ſtrokes to hit off, though not completely to finiſh, the picture of mankind in antient and modern times.

What has enabled us to compriſe ſo many ſubjects within the narrow bounds of this work, is the omiſſion of many immaterial circumſtances, which are recorded in other performances of the ſame kind, and of all thoſe fabulous accounts or deſcriptions which, to the diſgrace of the human underſtanding, ſwell the works of geographers; though the falſity of them, both from their own nature and the concurring teſtimony of the moſt enlightened and beſt-informed travellers and hiſtorians, be long ſince detected.

As to particular parts of the work, we have been more or leſs diffuſe, according to their importance to us as men, and as ſubjects of Great-Britain. Our own country, in both reſpects, deſerved the greateſt ſhare of our attention. Great-Britain, though ſhe cannot boaſt of a more luxuriant ſoil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and ſuperior kind, which make her the delight, the envy, and the miſtreſs of the world: theſe are, the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political conſtitution, and the moderation of her religious ſyſtem. With regard to the Britiſh empire we have therefore been ſingularly copious.

Next to Great-Britain, we have been moſt particular upon the other ſtates of Europe; and always in proportion as they preſent us with

with the largeſt field for uſeful reflection. By comparing together our accounts of the European nations, an important ſyſtem of practical knowledge is inculcated, and a thouſand arguments will appear in favour of a mild religion, a free government, and an extended, unreſtrained commerce.

Europe having occupied ſo large a part of our volume, Aſia next claims our attention; which, however, though in ſome reſpects the moſt famous quarter of the world, offers, when compared to Europe, extremely little for our entertainment or inſtruction. In Aſia, a ſtrong attachment to antient cuſtoms, and the weight of tyrannical power, bears down the active genius of man, and prevents that variety in manners and character, which diſtinguiſhes the European nations. The immenſe country of China alone, renowned for the wiſdom of its laws and political conſtitution, equally famous for the ſingularity of its language, literature, and philoſophy, deſerves to be conſidered at ſome length.

In Africa, the human mind ſeems degraded below its natural ſtate. To dwell long upon the manners of this country, a country ſo immerſed in rudeneſs and barbarity, beſides that it could afford little inſtruction, would be diſguſting to every lover of mankind. Add to this, that the inhabitants of Africa, deprived of all arts and ſciences, without which the human mind remains torpid and inactive, diſcover no great variety in manners or character. A gloomy ſameneſs almoſt every where prevails; and the trifling diſtinctions which are diſcovered among them, ſeem rather to ariſe from an exceſs of brutality on the one hand, than from any perceptible approaches towards refinement on the other. But tho' theſe quarters of the globe are treated leſs extenſively than Europe, there is no diſtrict of them, however barren or ſavage, intirely omitted.

America, whether conſidered as an immenſe continent, inhabited by an endleſs variety of different people, or as a country intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and government, deſerves very particular attention. The bold diſcovery, and barbarous conqueſt of this new World, and the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects, which, together with the deſcription of the country, deſervedly occupy no ſmall ſhare of this performance.

In treating of ſuch a variety of ſubjects, ſome leſs obvious particulars, no doubt, muſt eſcape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures ſketched with truth and judgment, the candour of the learned, we hope, will excuſe imperfections which are unavoidable in a work of this extenſive kind.

We cannot, without exceeding the bounds of a Preface, inſiſt upon the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are new, and executed with care, by the beſt informed artiſt in theſe kingdoms, will, we hope, afford ſatisfaction. The ſcience of natural geography, for want of proper encouragement from thoſe who are alone capable of giving it, ſtill remains in a very imperfect ſtate; and the exact diviſions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical ſurveys, are far from being well aſcertained. This conſideration has induced us to adopt the moſt unexceptionable of Templeman's Tables; which, if they give not the exacteſt account, afford at leaſt a general idea of this ſubject; which is all indeed we can attain, until the geographical ſcience arrives at greater perfection. They are, beſides, recommended by their brevity; and the making uſe of them has enabled us to introduce ſome ſubjects more neceſſary in this undertaking than the minute diviſions of countries, whoſe boundaries and ſituations we are yet little acquainted with.

INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

Of Astronomical Geography.

SECT. I.

THE ſcience of Geography cannot be compleatly underſtood without conſidering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a conſiderable diſtance from it. But the ſcience which treats of the planets, and other heavenly bodies, is called Aſtronomy. Hence the neceſſity of beginning this work with an account of aſtronomy, or of the heavenly bodies. Of theſe, the moſt conſpicuous is that glorious luminary the Sun, the fountain of light and heat to the ſeveral planets which move round it, and which, together with the Sun, compoſe what aſtronomers have called the Solar Syſtem. The way, or path, in which the planets move round the Sun, is called their Orbit; and it is now fully proved by aſtronomers, that there are ſix planets which move round the ſun, each in its own orbit. The names of theſe, according to their nearneſs to the center, or middle point of the ſun, are as follow: Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The two firſt, becauſe they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the ſun) are called inferior planets, or, perhaps more properly, interior or inner planets; the three laſt, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called ſuperior, or, perhaps more properly, exterior or outer planets. If we can form a notion of the manner in which any one of theſe planets, ſuppoſe our earth, moves round the ſun, we can eaſily conceive the manner in which all the reſt do it. We ſhall only therefore particularly conſider the motion of the earth, or planet on which we live, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we ſhall ſet down with ſuch explications as may render it intelligible to the meaneſt capacity.

The earth, upon which we live, was long conſidered as one large extenſive plane. The heavens, above it, in which the ſun, moon, and ſtars appeared to move daily from eaſt to weſt, were conceived to be at no great diſtance from it, and to be only deſigned for the uſe or ornament of our earth: ſeveral reaſons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; it is needleſs to mention them, becauſe we have now a ſufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators who have actually ſailed round it: as from that of Magellan's ſhip, which was the firſt that ſurrounded the globe, ſailing eaſt from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the ſame, after a voyage of 1124 days, without apparently altering his direction, any more than a fly would appear to do in moving round a ball of wax.

The roundneſs of the earth being thoroughly eſtabliſhed, proves the way for the diſcovery of its motion. For while it was conſidered as a plane, mankind had an obſcure notion of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding on pillars, though they could not tell what ſupported theſe. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed

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by conſidering, that if the earth did not move round the ſun, not only the ſun, but all the ſtars and planets muſt move round the earth. Now, as philoſophers, by reckonings founded on the ſureſt obſervations, have been able to gueſs pretty nearly at the diſtance of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, juſt as every body that knows the firſt elements of mathematics can meaſure the height of a ſteeple, or any object placed on it; it appeared, that if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we muſt ſuppoſe them endowed with a motion or velocity ſo immenſe as to exceed all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in the 24 hours.

To form a conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by ſliding along like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its ſurface in two points called its poles. Conceiving the matter then in this way, and that the earth, in the ſpace of 24 hours, moves from weſt to eaſt, the inhabitants on the ſurface of it, like men on the deck of a ſhip, who are inſenſible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the ſun and ſtars move from eaſt to weſt in the ſame time of 24 hours, in which they, along with the earth, move from weſt to eaſt. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us eaſily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the ſun. For as that luminary ſeems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth round its axis, ſo in the courſe of a year, he ſeems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to riſe and ſet in different points of them, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the ſun, which it compleats in the time of a year. Now as to the firſt of theſe motions we owe the difference of day and night, ſo to the ſecond we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the ſeaſons of the year.

This much being ſaid with regard to the motion of the earth, which the ſmalleſt reflection may lead us to apply to the other planets, we muſt obſerve, before exhibiting our table, that beſides the ſix planets already mentioned, which move round the ſun, there are other ten bodies which move round three of theſe, in the ſame manner as they do round the ſun; and of theſe our earth has one, called the Moon; Jupiter has four, and Saturn has five: theſe are all called moons, fron their agreeing with our moon, which was firſt attended to; and ſometimes they are called ſecondary planets, becauſe they ſeem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter and Saturn, about which they move, and which are called primary.

There are but two obſervations more neceſſary for underſtanding the following table. They are theſe: we have already ſaid that the annual motion of the earth occaſioned the diverſity of ſeaſons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, or in a line with the axis of its orbit: becauſe then the ſame parts of the earth would be turned towards the ſun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful viciſſitude of the ſeaſons, ariſing from the difference in length of the days and nights. This therefore is not the caſe—

eaſe—the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by ſuppoſing a ſpindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the ſpindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards ſome quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the ſpindle to the ground. The ſame obſervation applies to ſome of the other planets, as may be ſeen from the table. The only thing that now remains, is to conſider what is meant by the mean diſtances of the planets from the ſun. In order to underſtand which, we muſt learn that the orbit, or path which a planet deſcribes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the ſhape of a figure called an ellipſe, which, though reſembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the ſame planet is not always at the ſame diſtance from the ſun, and the mean diſtance of it is that which is exactly betwixt its greateſt and leaſt diſtance. Here follows the table.

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the ſeveral Planets in the Solar Syſtem.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in Engliſh miles.	Mean diſtances from the Sun, as determined from obſervations of the tranſit of Venus in 1761.	Annual periods round the ſun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of Axis to orbit.
			y. d. h.	d. h. m.			
Sun	890,000			25 6 0		3,818	8° 0′
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	unknown.	109,699	unknown	unkn.
Venus	9,330	68,891,486	0 224 17	24 8 0	80,295	43	75° 0
Earth	7,970	95,173,000	1 0 0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23° 29′
Moon	2,180	ditto.	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2° 10′
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0° 0′
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0° 0
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	22 167 6	unknown.	22,101	unknown	unkn.

The reader having obtained an idea of the ſolar ſyſtem from this table, and the previous obſervations neceſſary for underſtanding it, muſt next turn his reflection to what are called the fixed ſtars, which comprehend the luminaries above our heads that have not been explained. The fixed ſtars are diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye from the planets, by being leſs bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the ſtars. This ariſes from their being ſo extremely ſmall, that the interpoſition of the leaſt body, of which there are many conſtantly floating in the air, deprives us of the ſight of them; when the interpoſed body changes its place, we again ſee the ſtar, and this ſucceſſion being perpetual, occaſions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed ſtars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their ſituation, with regard to each other, as the planets, from what we have already ſaid, muſt evidently be always changing theirs. The ſtars which are neareſt to us ſeem largeſt, and are therefore called of the firſt magnitude. Thoſe of the ſecond magnitude appear leſs, being at a greater diſtance; and ſo

proceeding on to the ſixth magnitude, which include all the fixed ſtars which are viſible without a teleſcope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night without moonſhine they ſeem to be innumerable, which is owing to their ſtrong ſparkling, and our looking at them in a confuſed manner, yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been done by the ancients, into ſigns and conſtellations, the number that can be ſeen at a time by the bare eye, is not above a thouſand. Since the introduction of teleſcopes indeed, the number of the fixed ſtars has been juſtly conſidered as immenſe; becauſe the greater perfection we arrive at in our glaſſes, the more ſtars always appear to us. Mr. Flamſtead, royal aſtronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 ſtars, which is the moſt compleat that has hitherto appeared. The immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars from our earth, and one another, is of all conſiderations the moſt proper for raiſing our ideas of the works of God. For notwithſtanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at leaſt 162 millions of miles in diameter) round the ſun, the diſtance of a fixed ſtar is not ſenſibly affected by it; ſo that the ſtar does not appear to be any nearer us when the earth is in that part of its orbit neareſt the ſtar, than it ſeemed to be when the earth was at the moſt diſtant part of its orbit, or 162 millions of miles further removed from the ſame ſtar. The ſtar neareſt us, and conſequently the biggeſt in appearance, is the dog-ſtar, or Sirius. Modern diſcoveries make it probable that each of theſe fixed ſtars is a ſun, having worlds revolving round it, as our ſun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-ſtar appears 27,000 times leſs than the ſun, and as the diſtance of the ſtar muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thouſand millions of miles. The motion of light therefore, which though ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us, than we do in making a Weſt-India voyage. A ſound would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years: which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The ſtars, being at ſuch immenſe diſtances from the ſun, cannot poſſibly receive from him ſo ſtrong a light as they ſeem to have; nor any brightneſs ſufficient to make them viſible to us. For the ſun's rays muſt be ſo ſcattered and diſſipated before they reach ſuch remote objects, that they can never be tranſmitted back to our eyes, ſo as to render theſe objects viſible by reflexion. The ſtars therefore ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each particular ſtar, as well as the ſun, is confined to a particular portion of ſpace, it is plain that the ſtars are of the ſame nature with the ſun.

It is no ways probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom and does nothing in vain, ſhould create ſo many glorious ſuns, fit for ſo many important purpoſes, and place them at ſuch diſtances from one another, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of aſtronomy *, and a mean opinion of the Divine Wiſ-

* Eſpecially ſince many more ſtars require the aſſiſtance of a good teleſcope to find them out, than are viſible without that inſtrument, and therefore, inſtead of giving light to this world, they can only be ſeen by a few aſtronomers.

Wiſdom: ſince, by an infinitely leſs exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one ſingle additional moon.

Inſtead then of one ſun and one world only in the univerſe, as the unſkilful in aſtronomy imagine, *that* ſcience diſcovers to us ſuch an inconceivable number of ſuns, ſyſtems, and worlds, diſperſed through boundleſs ſpace, that if our ſun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more miſſed, by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of ſand from the ſea-ſhore. The ſpace they poſſeſs being comparatively ſo ſmall, that it would ſcarce be a ſenſible blank in the univerſe, although Saturn, the outermoſt of our planets, revolves about the ſun in an orbit of 4884 millions of miles in circumference, and ſome of our comets make excurſions upwards of ten thouſand millions of miles beyond Saturn's orbit; and yet, at that amazing diſtance, they are incomparably nearer to the ſun than to any of the ſtars; as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the ſtars, and returning periodically by virtue of the Sun's attraction.

From what we know of our own ſyſtem, it may be reaſonably concluded that all the reſt are with equal wiſdom contrived, ſituated, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants. For although there is almoſt an infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy running through and connecting all the parts into one ſcheme, one deſign, one whole!

Since the fixed ſtars are prodigious ſpheres of fire, like our ſun, and at inconceivable diſtances from one another, as well as from us, it is reaſonable to conclude they are made for the ſame purpoſes that the ſun is; each to beſtow light, heat, and vegetation on a certain number of inhabited planets, kept by gravitation within the ſphere of its activity.

What an auguſt! what an amazing conception, if human imagination can conceive it, does this give of the works of the Creator! Thouſands of thouſands of ſuns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immenſe diſtances from each other, attended by ten thouſand times ten thouſand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths preſcribed them; and theſe worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endleſs progreſſion in perfection and felicity.

If ſo much power, wiſdom, goodneſs, and magnificence is diſplayed in the material creation, which is the leaſt conſiderable part of the univerſe, how great, how wiſe, how good, muſt HE be, who made and governs the whole!

The firſt people who paid much attention to the fixed ſtars, were the ſhepherds in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon; who, partly from amuſement, and partly with a view to direct them in their travelling during the night, obſerved the ſituation of theſe celeſtial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the ſtars into different companies or conſtellations, each of which they ſuppoſed to repreſent the image of ſome animal, or other terreſtrial object. The peaſants in our own country do the ſame thing, for they diſtinguiſh that great northern conſtellation which philoſophers call the Urſa Major, by the name of the plough, the figure of which it certainly may repreſent with a very little help from the fancy. But the conſtellations in general have preſerved the names which were given them by the ancients; and they are reckoned 21 northern, and 12 ſouthern: but the moderns have increaſed the number of the northern

to 34, and of the ſouthern to 31. Beſide theſe there are the 12 ſigns or conſtellations in the Zodiac, as it is called from a Greek word ſignifying an animal, becauſe each of theſe 12 repreſent ſome animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. In the mean time, we ſhall conclude this ſection with an account of the riſe, progreſs, and revolutions in aſtronomy.

Mankind muſt have made a very conſiderable improvement in obſerving the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could ſo far diſengage themſelves from the prejudices of ſenſe and popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live was not fixed and immoveable. We find accordingly, that Thales, the Mileſian, who, about 600 years before Chriſt, firſt taught aſtronomy in Europe, had gone ſo far in this ſubject as to calculate eclipſes, or interpoſitions of the moon betwixt the earth and the ſun, or of the earth between the ſun and the moon (the nature of which may be eaſily underſtood, from what we have already obſerved.) Pythagoras, a Greek philoſopher, flouriſhed about 50 years after Thales, and was, no doubt, equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. This led Pythagoras to conceive an idea, which there is no reaſon to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itſelf was in motion, and that the ſun was at reſt. He found that it was impoſſible, in any other way, to give a conſiſtent account of the heavenly motions. This ſyſtem, however, was ſo extremely oppoſite to all the prejudices of ſenſe and opinion, that it never made great progreſs, or was widely diffuſed in the antient world. The philoſophers of antiquity deſpairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reaſon, ſet themſelves to adapt the one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the caſe with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philoſopher, who flouriſhed 138 years before Chriſt. He ſuppoſed, with the vulgar, who meaſure every thing by themſelves, that the earth was fixed immoveably in the centre of the univerſe, and that the ſeven planets, conſidering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed ſtars, then the cryſtalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, laſt of all, the cœlum empyrium, or heaven of heavens. All theſe vaſt orbs he ſuppoſed to move round the earth once in 24 hours; and beſides that, in certain ſtated or periodical times. To account for theſe motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles called excentrics and epicycles, croſſing and interfering with one another. This ſyſtem was univerſally maintained by the Peripatetic philoſophers, who were the moſt conſiderable ſect in Europe, from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century.

At length, Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean, or true ſyſtem of the univerſe; and publiſhed it to the world in 1530. This doctrine had been ſo long in obſcurity, that the reſtorer of it was conſidered as the inventor; and the ſyſtem obtained the name of the Copernican philoſophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe, however, was ſtill immerſed in ſenſe and ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with thoſe of a refined philoſophy. This occaſioned Copernicus to have few abetters, but many opponents. Tycho Brache, in particular, a noble Dane, ſenſible of the defects of the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured to eſtabliſh a new ſyſtem of his own, which

which was ſtill more perplexed and embarraſſed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and it makes the ſun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The ſun, however, with all the planets, is ſuppoſed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This ſyſtem however, abſurd as it was, met with its advocates. Longomontanus and others, ſo far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they inſiſted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkneſs of a great many ages, the firſt dawn of learning and taſte began to appear in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate aſtronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the uſe of teleſcopes, which diſcovered new arguments in ſupport of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy indeed had almoſt checked this flouriſhing bud: Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican ſyſtem, as a damnable hereſy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed the one half of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the ſcriptures were not given for explaining ſyſtems of natural philoſophy, but for a much nobler purpoſe, to make us juſt, virtuous, and humane: that inſtead of oppoſing the word of God, which in ſpeaking of natural things ſuits itſelf to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to God himſelf, in tracing the nature of his works, which the more they are conſidered, afford us the greater reaſon to admire his glorious attributes of power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. From this time, therefore, noble diſcoveries were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called Gravity, or Attraction, and is the ſame by which any body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. It has been demonſtrated, that this ſame law which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the whole fabric of nature from confuſion and diſorder *.

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* Beſides the planets and ſtars mentioned above, we perceive, in the expanſe of the univerſe, many other bodies belonging to the ſyſtem of the ſun, that ſeem to have much more irregular motions. Theſe are the comets, which deſcending from the far diſtant parts of the ſyſtem with great rapidity, ſurprize us with the ſingular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them; become viſible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a ſhort ſtay, go off again to vaſt diſtances, and diſappear. Tho' ſome of the antients had more juſt notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to thoſe we ſee in it every night, and in a few moments vaniſhing, no care was taken to obſerve or record their phænomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of aſtronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are ſolid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the ſame laws of gravity, ſo as to deſcribe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the ſun in very eccentric ellipſes, and are of a much greater denſity than the earth; for ſome of them are heated in every period to ſuch a degree as would vitrify or diſſipate any ſubſtance known to us. Sir Iſaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when neareſt the ſun, to be 2000 times hotter than red hot iron, and that being thus heated, it muſt retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period ſhould be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575

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SECT. II.

Of the Doctrine of the SPHERE.

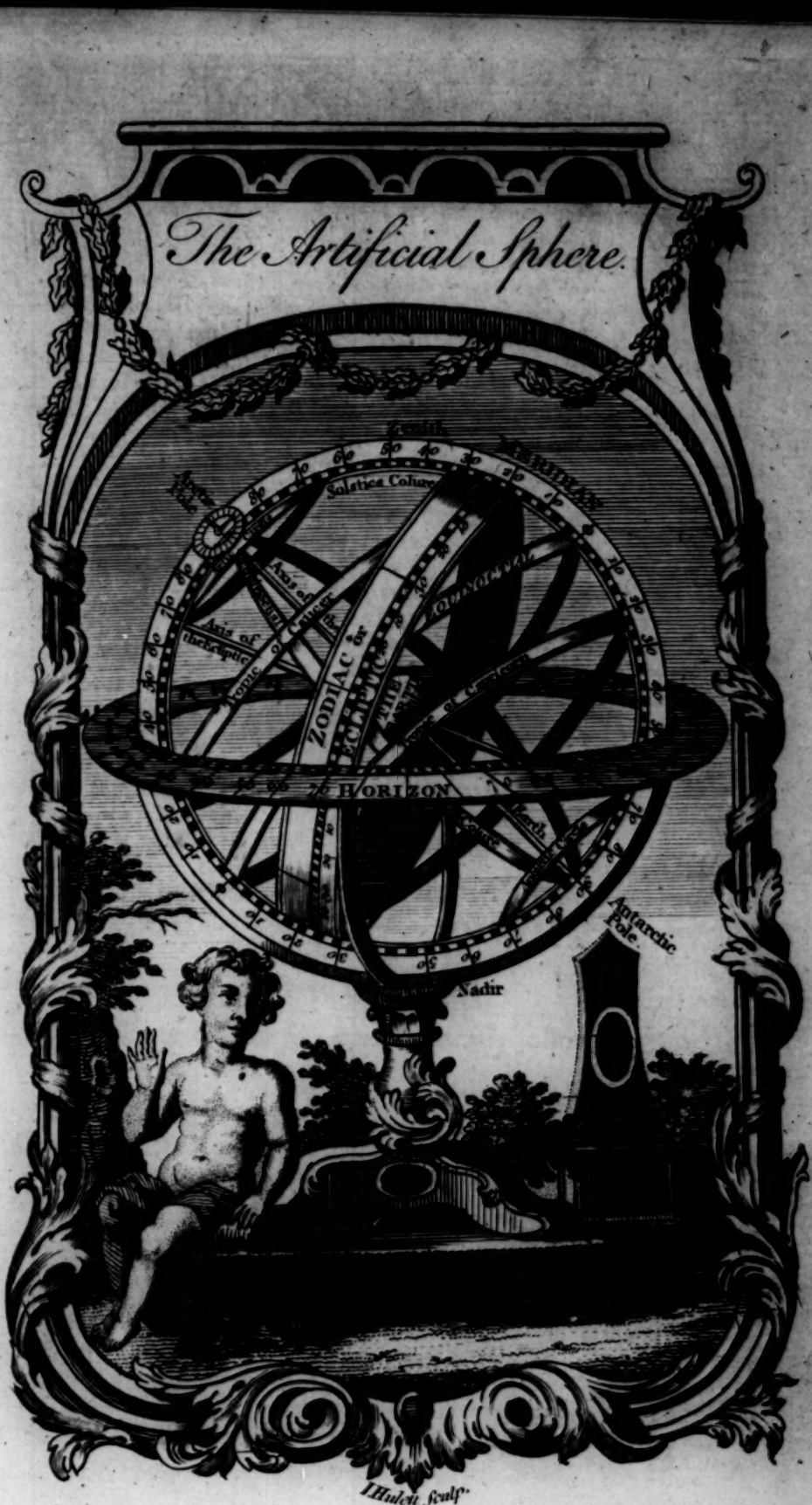
HAVING, in the foregoing Section, treated of the univerſe in general, in which the earth has been conſidered as a planet, we now proceed to the Doctrine of the Sphere, which ought always to be premiſed before that of the globe or earth, as we ſhall ſee in the next Section. In handling this ſubject, we ſhall conſider the earth as at reſt, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any miſtake, ſince we have previouſly explained the true ſyſtem of the univerſe, from which it appears that it is the *real* motion of the earth, which occaſions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is beſides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our ſenſes, which always lead us to conceive the matter in this way. The imagination therefore is not put on the ſtretch; the idea is eaſy and familiar, and in delivering the elements of ſcience, this object cannot be too much attended to. N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occaſionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial ſphere, on the oppoſite page.

The antients obſerved that all the ſtars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from eaſt to weſt, in twenty-four hours: that the circles, which they deſcribed in thoſe revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the ſame magnitude; thoſe paſſing over the middle of the earth, being the largeſt of all, while the reſt diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from it. They alſo obſerved that there were two points in the heavens, which always preſerve the ſame ſituation. Theſe points they termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeem to turn round them. In order to imitate theſe motions, they invented what is called the Artificial Sphere, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an Axis, whoſe extremities were fixed to the immoveable points called Poles. They

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It is believed that there are at leaſt 21 comets belonging to our ſyſtem, moving in all manner of directions; and all thoſe which have been obſerved have moved through the etherial regions and the orbits of the planets, without ſuffering the leaſt ſenſible reſiſtance in their motions, which ſufficiently proves that the planets do not move in ſolid orbs. Of all the comets the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of theſe, that which appeared in 1680 is the moſt remarkable. This comet, at its greateſt diſtance, is about 11 thouſand 200 millions of miles from the ſun, while its leaſt diſtance from the centre of the ſun is about 490 thouſand miles; within leſs than one third part of the ſun's ſemidiameter from his ſurface. In that part of its orbit, which is neareſt to the ſun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the ſun, as ſeen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, conſequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The aſtoniſhing diſtance that this comet runs out into empty ſpace, naturally ſuggeſts to our imagination, the vaſt diſtance between our ſun and the neareſt of the fixed ſtars, of whoſe attractions all the comets muſt keep clear, to return periodically and go round the ſun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of aſtronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to the great Sir Iſaac Newton on this ſubject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet laſt paſſed near her orbit; but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always paſs by us with ſo little effect; for it may be here obſerved, that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth; ſo that, in ſome revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very conſiderable, if not fatal effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keill, M'Laurin, Derham, and Whiſton.

farther


The Artificial Sphere.
Solstitial Colure
Axis of the World
Axis of the Ecliptick
ZODIAC or ECLIPTICK
EQUINOCTIAL
HORIZON
Antarctic Pole
Nadir
Hulett sculp.



farther obſerved, that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle deſcribed by the ſun, was at an equal diſtance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, muſt divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the Equator or Equaller. It was alſo called the Equinoctial Line, becauſe the ſun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having alſo obſerved that from the 21ſt of June, to the 22d of December, the ſun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from whence he ſet out from 22d of December, to the 21ſt of June; they fixed theſe points which they called Solſtices, becauſe the direct motion of the ſun was ſtopped at them: and repreſented the bounds of the ſun's motion, by two circles, which they named Tropicks, becauſe the ſun no ſooner arrived there than he turned back. Aſtronomers obſerving the motion of the ſun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every 24 hours. This great circle is called the Ecliptic, and it paſſes through certain conſtellations, diſtinguiſhed by the names of animals, in a zone called the Zodiac. It touches the tropic of cancer on one ſide, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely. To expreſs this motion they ſuppoſed two points in the heavens, equally diſtant from, and parallel to this circle, which they called the Poles of the Zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis deſcribed the two polar circles. In the artificial ſphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles called Colures, which ſerve to mark the points of the ſolſtices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients alſo obſerved that, when the ſun was in any point of his courſe, all the people inhabiting directly north and ſouth, as far as the poles, have noon at the ſame time. This gave occaſion to imagine a circle paſſing through the poles of the world, which they called a Meridian, and which is immoveable in the artificial ſphere, as well as the horizon; which is another circle repreſenting the bounds betwixt the two hemiſpheres, or half ſpheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it.

SECT. III.

The Doctrine of the GLOBE naturally follows that of the SPHERE.

BY the Doctrine of the Globe is meant the repreſentation of the different places and countries, on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Now the manner in which geographers have repreſented the ſituation of one place upon this earth with regard to another, or with regard to the earth in general, has been by transferring the circles of the ſphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ. This will be abundantly obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to aſtronomers, there was nothing more eaſy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the ſituation of places was determined, according as they lay on one ſide of the equator or another. The ſame may be obſerved of the other circles of the ſphere above-mentioned. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the Doctrine of the Globe is founded,

may proceed to conſider this Doctrine itſelf, or in other words, the deſcription of our earth, as repreſented by the artificial globe.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though in ſpeaking of the earth, along with the other planets, it was ſufficient to conſider it as a ſpherical or globular body: yet it has been diſcovered, that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a ſphere or ball, is not perfectly ſo. This matter occaſioned great diſpute between the philoſophers of the laſt age, among whom Sir Iſaac Newton and Caſſini, a French aſtronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Iſaac demonſtrated from mechanical principles, that the earth was an oblate ſphere, or that it was flatted at the poles or north and ſouth points, and jutted out towards the equator; ſo that a line drawn through the centre of the earth, and paſſing through the poles, which is called a Diameter, would not be ſo long as a line drawn through the ſame center, and paſſing through the eaſt and weſt points. The French philoſopher aſſerted quite the contrary. But the matter was put to a trial by the French king in 1736, who ſent out a company of philoſophers towards the north pole, and likewiſe towards the the equator, in order to meaſure a degree, or the three hundred and ſixtieth part of a great circle in theſe different parts; and from their report, the opinion of Sir Iſaac Newton was confirmed beyond diſpute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been conſidered as more flat towards the poles, than towards the equator. The reaſon of this figure may be eaſily underſtood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly obſerved, with regard to the earth's motion. For if we fix a ball of clay on a ſpindle, and whirl it round, we ſhall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. Now this is exactly the caſe, with regard to our earth, only that its axis, repreſented by the ſpindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not perfectly ſpherical, the difference from that figure is ſo ſmall, that it may be repreſented by a globe or ball, without any ſenſible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the general table we have exhibited, page 11, the diameter of the globe is given, according to the beſt obſervations: ſo that its circumference is 25, 038 Engliſh miles. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of meaſuring, to be divided into three hundred and ſixty parts or degrees, each degree containing ſixty geographical miles, or ſixty-nine Engliſh miles and an half. Theſe degrees are in the ſame manner conceived to be divided each into ſixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The Axis of the Earth is that imaginary line paſſing through its center, on which it is ſuppoſed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the Earth; one in the north, and the other in the ſouth, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of theſe poles is of great uſe to the geographer, in determining the diſtance and ſituation of places; for the poles mark, as it were, the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; ſo that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator, and contrariwiſe, in removing from the poles you approach the equator.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] Theſe are commonly divided into the greater and leſſer. A great circle is that whoſe plane paſſes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemiſpheres. A leſſer circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot paſs

through the center of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are fix in number, the leſſer only four.

EQUATOR.] The firſt great circle we ſhall ſpeak of is the Equator, which we have had occaſion to hint at already. It is called ſometimes the Equinoctial, the reaſon of which we have explained; and by navigators it is alſo called the Line, becauſe, according to their rude notions, they believe it to be a great Line drawn upon the ſea from eaſt to weſt, dividing the earth into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres, and which they were actually to paſs in ſailing from the one into the other. The poles of this circle are the ſame with thoſe of the world. It paſſes through the eaſt and weſt points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, the uſe of which will ſoon appear.

HORIZON.] This great circle is repreſented by a broad circular piece of wood, encompaſſing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemiſpheres. Geographers very properly diſtinguiſh the horizon into the ſenſible and rational. The firſt may be conceived to be made by any great plane on the ſurface of the ſea, which ſeems to divide the heavens into two hemiſpheres, the one above, the other below the level of the earth. This circle determines the riſing or ſetting of the ſun and ſtars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eaſtern edge, we ſay they riſe, and when they go beneath the weſtern, we ſay they are ſet. It appears then that each place has its own ſenſible horizon. The other horizon, called the rational, encompaſſes the globe, exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is two points in its axis, each ninety degrees diſtant from its plane, as thoſe of all circles are) are called the Zenith and Nadir; the firſt exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle, which repreſents it on the globe, has ſeveral circles drawn upon it: of theſe the innermoſt is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve ſigns of the Zodiac (of which hereafter) viz. thirty to each ſign. Next to this you have the names of theſe ſigns. Next to this the days of the month according to the old ſtile, and then according to the new ſtile. Beſides theſe there is a circle, repreſenting the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compaſs. The uſe of all theſe will be explained afterwards.

MERIDIAN.] This circle is repreſented by the braſs ring, on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; ſo that counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres. This circle is called the Meridian, becauſe when the ſun comes to the ſouth part of it, it is then meridies or midday, and then the Sun has its greateſt altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now as the ſun is never in its meridian altitude, at two places eaſt or weſt of one another, at the ſame time, each of theſe places muſt have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to ſupply the place of the compaſſes in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of braſs, ſcrewed on the brazen meridian, which contains 90 degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the diſtances and bearings of places are meaſured without the trouble of firſt

extending the compaſſes between them, and then applying the ſame to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a ſmall braſs circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into 24 hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

ZODIAC.] The Zodiac is a broad circle, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve ſigns above-mentioned are repreſented. In the middle of this circle is ſuppoſed another called the Ecliptick, from which the ſun never deviates in his annual courſe, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve ſigns are,

1. Aries ♈	March	7. Libra ♎	September
2. Taurus ♉	April	8. Scorpio ♏	October
3. Gemini ♊	May	9. Sagittarius ♐	November
4. Cancer ♋	June	10. Capricorn ♑	December
5. Leo ♌	July	11. Aquarius ♒	January
6. Virgo ♍	Auguſt	12. Piſces ♓	February.

COLURES.] If you imagine two great circles paſſing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the ſoliſtitial points Cancer and Capricorn, theſe are called the Colures, the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solſtitial Colure. Theſe divide the ecliptic into four equal parts or quarters, which are denominated according to the points which theſe paſs through, viz. the four cardinal points, and are the firſt points of Aries, Libra, Cancer and Capricorn; and theſe are all the great circles.

TROPICS.] If you ſuppoſe two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes diſtance from it, meaſured on the brazen meridian, and one towards the north, the other towards the ſouth, theſe are called Tropics, becauſe the ſun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former courſe. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, becauſe they paſs through theſe points.

POLAR CIRCLES.] If two other circles are ſuppoſed to be drawn at the like diſtance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, theſe are called the Polar Circles. The northern is called the Arctick, becauſe the north pole is near the conſtellation of the Bear; the ſouthern, the Antarctick, becauſe oppoſite to the former. And theſe are the four leſſer circles. Beſide theſe ten circles now deſcribed, which are always drawn on the globe, there are ſeveral others, which are only ſuppoſed to be drawn on it. Theſe will be explained as they become neceſſary, leſt the reader ſhould be diſguſted with too many definitions at the ſame time, without ſeeing the purpoſe for which they ſerve. The main deſign then of all theſe circles being to exhibit the reſpective ſituation of places on the earth, we ſhall proceed to conſider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found eaſier to diſtinguiſh places by the quarters of the earth, in which they lay, than by their diſtance from any one point. Thus after it was diſcovered, that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemiſpheres, it was eaſy to ſee that all places on the globe might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay on the north, or ſouth ſide of the equator. Beſides, after the four leſſer circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and conſequently that the places on its ſurface might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay in one or other of theſe portions, which are called Zones or Belts, from their partaking

of

of breadth. That part of the earth between the Tropics, was called by the antients the Torrid or Burnt Zone, becauſe they conceived, that, being continually expoſed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the ſun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and ſandy deſarts. This notion however has long ſince been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almoſt throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but ſo fruitful, that in many places they have two harveſts in a year; all ſorts of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes more perfect metals, precious ſtones, and pearls, than all the reſt of the earth together. In ſhort, the countries of Africa, Aſia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all reſpects the moſt fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two temperate zones are compriſed between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, becauſe meeting the rays of the ſun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat. The two frigid zones lie between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are incloſed within the polar circles. They are called the Frigid or Frozen, becauſe moſt part of the year it is extremely cold there, and every thing is frozen ſo long as the ſun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However theſe zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much leſs fit for living in than the torrid.

None of all theſe zones is thoroughly diſcovered by the Europeans. Little is known to us of the ſouthern temperate zone, and though ſome iſlands and ſea coaſts in the northern frigid zone have come to our knowledge, we have none at all of the ſouthern frigid zone. The northern temperate, and torrid zones are thoſe we are beſt acquainted with.

Climates.] But the diviſions of the earth into hemiſpheres and zones, though it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not ſufficiently minute for given us a notion of the diſtances between one place and other. This however is ſtill more neceſſary; becauſe it is of more importance to mankind, to know the ſituation of places, with regard to one another, than with regard to the earth itſelf. The firſt ſtep taken for determining this matter, was to divide the earth into what is called Climates. It was obſerved that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the longeſt day encreaſed in proportion as we advanced north or ſouth on either ſide of it. The antients therefore determined how far any place was north or ſouth of the equator, or what is called the Latitude of the place, from the greateſt length of the day from that place. This made them conceive a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different diſtances from the equator. And as they called the ſpace contained between theſe circles, Climates, becauſe they declined from the equator towards the pole, ſo the circles themſelves may be called Climatical Parallels. This therefore was a new diviſion of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and ſtill continues in uſe, though, as we ſhall ſhew, the deſign which firſt introduced it, may be better anſwered in another way. There are 30 climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt 24, the days encreaſe by half hours, but in the remaining ſix, between the polar circle and the poles, the days encreaſe by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the uſe of the globe; in the mean time we ſhall inſert a table, which will ſerve to ſhew in what climate any country lies, ſuppoſing the length of the day, and the diſtance of the place from the equator to be known.

Cli.	Latitude. D.	M.	Breadth. D.	M.	Long. Day. H.	M.	Names of countries and remarkable places situated in every climate north of the Equator.
1	8	25	8	25	12	30	I. Within the firſt Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coaſt in Africa; Malacca, in the Eaſt-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam, in Terra Firma, S. Amer.
2	16	25	8		13		II. Here liè Abyſſinia, in Africa; Siam, Madraſs, and Pondicherry, in the Eaſt-Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes, in the W. Ind.
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Mecca, in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the Eaſt-Indies; Canton, in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in N. America; Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, St. Chriſtophers, Antego, Martinico, and Guadalupe, in the Weſt-Indies.
4	30	25	6	30	14		IV. Egypt, and the Canary Iſlands, in Africa; Delly, capital of the Mogul Empire, in Aſia; Gulph of Mexico, and Eaſt Florida, in N. America; the Havanna, in the Weſt-Indies.
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain; part of the Mediterranean ſea; the Barbary coaſt, in Africa; Jeruſalem; Iſpahan, capital of Perſia; Nankin, in China; California, New Mexico, Weſt Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in N. America.
6	41	22	4	54	15		VI. Liſbon, in Portugal; Madrid in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Aſia Minor; part of the Caſpian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Pekin, in China; Corea and Japan; Williamſburgh, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in N. America.
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain; ſouthern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Conſtantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caſpian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boſton in New England, N. America.
8	49	01	3	32	16		VIII. Paris, Vienna, cap. of Germany; New-Scotland, Newfoundland, and Canada, in N. Amer.
9	52	00	2	57	16	30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden; Cracow, in Poland; ſouthern provinces of Ruſſia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland.
10	54	27	2	29	17		X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Labrador, and New South-Wales, in N. Amer.
11	56	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moſcow, cap. of Ruſſia.
12	58	29	1	52	18		XII. South part of Hudſon's Bay, in N. America.
13	59	58	1	29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Iſles, Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	61	18	1	20	19		XIV. Bergen, in Norway; Peterſburg, in Ruſſia.
15	62	25	1	7	19	30	XV. Hudſon's ſtraits, N. America.
16	63	22		57	20		XVI. Siberia, and the ſouth part of W. Greenland.
17	64	06		44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.
18	64	49		43	21		XVIII. Part of Finland, in Ruſſia.
19	65	21		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea, Ruſſia.
20	65	47		22	22		XX. Hecla, in Iceland.
21	66	06		19	22	30	XXI. Northern parts of Ruſſia and Siberia.
22	66	20		14	23		XXII. New North Wales, in N. America.
23	66	28		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's ſtraits, in ditto.
24	66	31		3	24		XXIV. Samoieda.
25	67	21			1 Month		XXV. South part of Lapland.
26	69	48			2 Months		XXVI. Weſt-Greenland.
27	73	37			3 Months		XXVII. Zembla Auſtralis.
28	78	30			4 Months		XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84	05			5 Months		XXIX. Spitzbergen or Eaſt Greenland.
30	90				6 Months		XXX. Unknown.

The diſtance of places from the equator, or what is called their Latitude, is eaſily meaſured on the globe, by means of the meridian above deſcribed. For we have only to bring the place, whoſe latitude we would know, to the meridian, where the degree of latitude is marked, and will be exactly over the place. Now this is the manner alluded to, by which the diſtance of places from the equator, is moſt properly diſtinguiſhed; but it could not be adopted, until the figure and circumference of the earth were known, after which it was eaſy to determine the number of miles in each 360th part or degree of this circumference, and conſequently know the latitude of places. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, it is either northern or ſouthern, and the nearer the poles the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, becauſe the poles, where they terminate, are at that diſtance from the equator.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.] Through every degree of latitude, or more properly through every particular place on the earth, geographers ſuppoſe a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The interſection of this circle, with the meridian of any place, ſhews the true ſituation of that place.

LONGITUDE.] The longitude of a place is its ſituation with regard to its meridian, and conſequently reckoned towards the eaſt or weſt; in reckoning the longitude there is no particular ſpot from which we ought to ſet out preferably to another, but for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the moſt weſterly of the Canary Iſlands, was conſidered as the firſt meridian in moſt of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be ſo many degrees eaſt or weſt of the meridian of Ferro. Theſe degrees are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, becauſe the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be moved from another above half that diſtance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like thoſe of latitude, but diminiſh in proportion as the meridians incline, or their diſtance contracts in approaching the pole: Hence in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and ſo of the reſt. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are ſet down in the following table.

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE FOUND.] To find the Longitude and Latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we ſhall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of theſe degrees into miles, according to the table above given, and remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 60 geographic miles, or 69½ Engliſh, we ſhall be able exactly to determine the diſtance between any places on the globe.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The Diſtance of Places which lie in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly ſouth, north, eaſt, or weſt, from one another, may be meaſured in a readier way, by extending the compaſſes from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For inſtance, extend the compaſſes from Guinea in Africa, to

Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the distance to be 25 degrees, which at 60 miles to a degree, makes the distance 1500 miles.

A TABLE

SHEWING

The Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	31	51	43	61	29	04
2	59	94	32	50	88	62	28	17
3	59	92	33	50	32	63	27	24
4	59	86	34	49	74	64	26	30
5	59	77	35	49	15	65	25	36
6	59	67	36	48	54	66	24	41
7	59	56	37	47	92	67	23	45
8	59	40	38	47	28	68	22	48
9	59	20	39	46	62	69	21	51
10	59	08	40	46	00	70	20	52
11	58	89	41	45	28	71	19	54
12	58	68	42	44	95	72	18	55
13	58	46	43	43	88	73	17	54
14	58	22	44	43	16	74	16	53
15	58	00	45	42	43	75	15	52
16	57	60	46	41	68	76	14	51
17	57	30	47	41	00	77	13	50
18	57	04	48	40	15	78	12	48
19	56	73	49	39	36	79	11	45
20	56	38	50	38	57	80	10	42
21	56	00	51	37	73	81	09	38
22	55	63	52	37	00	82	08	35
23	55	23	53	36	18	83	07	32
24	54	81	54	35	26	84	06	28
25	54	38	55	34	41	85	05	23
26	54	00	56	33	55	86	04	18
27	53	44	57	32	67	87	03	14
28	53	00	58	31	79	88	02	09
29	52	48	59	30	90	89	01	05
30	51	96	60	30	00	90	00	00

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROB. 1. *THE diameter of an artificial globe being given, to find its ſurface in ſquare, and its ſolidity in cubic meaſure.*

Multiply the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the firſt: then multiply the ſaid product by one ſixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the ſecond. After the ſame manner we may find the ſurface and ſolidity of the natural globe, as alſo the whole body of the atmoſphere ſurrounding the ſame, provided it be always and every where of the ſame height; for having found the perpendicular height thereof, by that common experiment of the aſcent of Mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, double the ſaid height, and add the ſame to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as a new diameter by its proper circumference, and from the product ſubtract the ſolidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmoſphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the globe.*

The globe being ſet upon a true plane, raiſe the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and if there be any mariner's compaſs upon the pedeſtal, let the globe be ſo ſituate, as that the brazen meridian may ſtand due ſouth and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing their variation.

PROB. 3. *To find the longitude and latitude of any place.*

For this, ſee page 23.

PROB. 4. *The longitude and latitude of any place being given, to find that place on the globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the ſame meridian the degree of latitude, whether ſouth or north, and make a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the chalk is the place deſired.

PROB. 5. *The latitude of any place being given, to find all thoſe places that have the ſame latitude.*

The globe being rectified (*a*) according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the ſame, and turning the globe round, all thoſe places paſſing under the ſaid mark have the ſame latitude with the given place.

(*a*) PROB. 2.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic at any time.*

The month and day being given, look for the ſame upon the wooden horizon; and over-againſt the day you will find the particular ſign and degree in which the Sun is at that time, which ſign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the ſame is the Sun's place, or nearly, at the time deſired.

PROB. 7. *The month and day being given, as alſo the particular time of that day, to find thoſe places of the globe to which the Sun is in the meridian at that particular time.*

The

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the given place, bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian, and ſetting the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. which done, fix the globe in that ſituation, and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper hemiſphere of the brazen meridian, for thoſe are the places deſired.

PROB. 8. *To know the length of the day and night in any place of the earth at any time.*

Elevate the pole (*a*) according to the latitude of the given place; find the ſun's place in the ecliptic (*b*) at that time, which being brought to the eaſt ſide of the horizon, ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII. and turning the globe about till the aforeſaid place of the ecliptic touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, look upon the horary circle, and whereſoever the index pointeth, reckon the number of hours between the ſame and the upper figure of 12, for that is the length of the day, the complement whereof to 24 hours is the length of the night.

(*a*) PROB. 2.
(*b*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 9. *To know what o'clock it is by the globe in any part of the world, and at any time, provided you know the hour of the day where you are at the ſame time.*

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raiſed (*c*) according to the latitude thereof, and ſet the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the deſired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the preſent hour at that place wherever it is.

(*c*) PROB. 3.

PROB. 10. *A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find thoſe two days of the year in which the Sun ſhall be vertical to the ſame.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and obſerve the two points of the ecliptic that paſs through the ſaid degree of latitude. Search upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the ſun's annual motion) on what days he paſſeth through the aforeſaid points of the ecliptic, for thoſe are the days required in which the ſun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The month and day being given, to find by the globe thoſe places of the North Frigid Zone, where the ſun beginneth then to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting; as alſo thoſe places of the South Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally abſent.*

The day given, (which muſt always be one of thoſe either between the vernal equinox and the ſummer ſolſtice, or between the autumnal equinox and winter ſolſtice) find (*a*) the ſun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the ſame, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the Sun's place in the ecliptic, ſetting a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends. This done, turn the globe round, and all the places paſſing under the ſaid chalk are thoſe in which the ſun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting upon the given day. For ſolution of the latter part of the problem, ſet off the ſame diſtance from the ſouth pole upon the brazen meridian,

(*a*) PROB. 6.

ridian towards the equator, as was formerly ſet off from the north; then marking with chalk, and turning the globe round, all places paſſing under the mark are thoſe where the ſun begins his total diſappearance from the given day.

PROB. 12. *A place being given in the North Frigid Zone, to find by the globe what number of days the ſun doth conſtantly ſhine upon the ſaid place, and what days he is abſent, as alſo the firſt and laſt day of his appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and obſerving its latitude (*b*) elevate the globe accordingly; count the ſame number of degrees upon the meridian from each ſide of the equator as the place is diſtant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully obſerve what two degrees of the ecliptic paſs exactly under the two points marked in the meridian; firſt for the northern arch of the circle, namely that comprehended between the two degrees remarked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the ſun doth conſtantly ſhine above the horizon of the given place; and the oppoſite arch of the ſaid circle will in like manner give the number of days in which he is totally abſent, and alſo will point out which days thoſe are. And in the interval he will riſe and ſet.

(*b*) PROB. 2.

PROB. 13. *The month and day being given, to find thoſe places on the globe, to which the Sun, when on the meridian, ſhall be vertical on that day.*

The Sun's place in the ecliptic being (*a*) found, bring the ſame to the brazen meridian, in which make a ſmall mark with chalk, exactly above the ſun's place. Which done, turn the globe, and thoſe places which have the ſun vertical in the meridian, will ſucceſſively paſs under the ſaid mark.

(*a*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 14. *The month and day being given, to find upon what point of the compaſs the Sun then riſeth and ſetteth in any place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the deſired place, and finding the Sun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the ſame to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and you may there clearly ſee the point of the compaſs upon which he then riſeth. By turning the globe about till his place coincide with the weſtern ſide of the horizon, you may alſo ſee upon the ſaid circle the exact point of his ſetting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the globe the length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt days and nights in any part of the world.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the firſt degree of Cancer, if in the northern, or Capricorn if in the ſouthern hemiſphere, to the eaſt ſide of the horizon; and ſetting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe about till the ſign of Cancer touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and then obſerve upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII. reckoning them according to the motion of the index, for that is the length of the longeſt day, the complement whereof is the extent of the ſhorteſt night. As for the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night, they are only the reverſe of the former.

PROB. 16.

PROB. 16. *The hour of the day being given in any place, to find thoſe places of the earth where it is either noon or midnight, or any other particular hour at the ſame time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn about the globe till the index point at the upper figure of XII. and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, for in them it is midday at the time given. Which done, turn the globe about till the index point at the lower figure of XII. and what places are then in the lower ſemicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the ſame manner we may find thoſe places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index point at the hour deſired, and obſerving the places that are then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The day and hour being given, to find by the globe that particular place of the earth to which the Sun is vertical at that very time.*

(*a*) PROB. 6. (*b*) PROB. 16. The Sun's place in the ecliptic (*a*) being found and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the ſame with chalk; then (*b*) find thoſe places of the earth in whoſe meridian the Sun is at that inſtant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, obſerve narrowly that individual part of the earth which falls exactly under the foreſaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the Sun is vertical at that very time.

PROB. 18. *The day and hour at any place being given, to find all thoſe places where the Sun is then riſing, or ſetting, or on the meridian; conſequently, all thoſe places which are enlightened at that time, and thoſe which are in the dark.*

This problem cannot be ſolved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour circle fixed upon the braſs meridian; unleſs the Sun be on or near ſome of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up according to Mr. Joſeph Harris's invention, where the hour-circle lies on the ſurface of the globe, below the meridian, it may be ſolved for any day in the year according to his method; which is as follows.

Having found the place to which the Sun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemiſphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon, as are equal to the latitude of that place; if the place be in the ſouthern hemiſphere, elevate the ſouth pole accordingly; and bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian. Then, all thoſe places which are in the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, have the Sun riſing to them at that time; and thoſe in the eaſtern ſemicircle have it ſetting: to thoſe under the upper ſemicircle of the braſs meridian, it is noon; and to thoſe under the lower ſemicircle, it is midnight. All thoſe places which are above the horizon, are enlightened by the Sun, and have the Sun juſt as many degrees above them, as they themſelves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the Sun is vertical; and then, laying it over any other place, obſerve what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the ſaid place and the horizon. In all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the morning

twilight is juſt beginning; in all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and and all thoſe places that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour index be ſet to the upper XII or noon, and then the globe be turned round eaſtward on its axis; when the place comes to the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-riſing at that place; and when the ſame place comes to the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-ſet.

To thoſe places which do not go under the horizon, the Sun ſets not on that day: and to thoſe which do not come above it, the Sun does not riſe.

PROB. 19. *The month and day being given, with the place of the Moon in the zodiac and her true latitude, to find thereby the exact hour when ſhe ſhall riſe and ſet, together with her ſouthing, or coming to the meridian of the place.*

The Moon's place in the zodiac may be found readily enough at any time by an ordinary almanac; and her latitude, which is her diſtance from the ecliptic, by applying the ſemicircle of poſition to her place in the zodiac. For the ſolution of the problem (*a*), elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and the Sun's place in the ecliptic at that time being (*b*) found and marked with chalk, as alſo the Moon's place at the ſame time, bring the Sun's place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, then turn the globe till the Moon's place ſucceſſively meet with the eaſtern and weſtern ſide of the horizon, as alſo the brazen meridian, and the index will point at thoſe various times the particular hours of her riſing, ſetting and ſouthing.

(*a*) PROB. 2.

(*b*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 20. *Two places being given on the globe, to find the true diſtance between them.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true diſtance from each other, reckoning every degree to be $69\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh miles.

PROB. 21. *A place being given on the globe, and its true diſtance from a ſecond place, to find thereby all other places of the earth that are at the ſame diſtance from the given place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the ſaid place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon, upon the ſaid quadrant, the given diſtance between the firſt and ſecond place, provided the ſame be under 90 degrees, otherwiſe you muſt uſe the ſemicircle of poſition, and making a mark where the reckoning ends, and moving the ſaid quadrant or ſemicircle quite round upon the ſurface of the globe, all places paſſing under that mark, are thoſe deſired.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place, and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement

complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Thoſe places which lie on the equator, have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and thoſe places which lie on the firſt meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Conſequently, *that* particular place of the earth where the firſt meridian interſects the equator, has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth do equally enjoy the benefit of the ſun, in reſpect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each, at all times of the year. For although the ſun declines alternately, from the equator towards the north and towards the ſouth, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the ſun muſt always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the ſun is in the equinoctial: for, in all elevations of the pole, ſhort of 90 degrees (which is the greateſt) one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the ſun enters the ſigns ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer any place is to the equator, the leſs is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary. The circles which the ſun deſcribes in the heaven every 24 hours, being cut more nearly equal in the former caſe, and more unequally in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or ſhort the day and night be at any one of theſe places, at any time of the year, it is then of the ſame length at all the reſt; for in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the ſun's declination) all theſe places will keep equally long above or below the horizon.

9. The ſun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to thoſe under the tropics, once a year, but never any where elſe. For, there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic, whoſe declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the ſun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the ſun, when he is in the neareſt tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without ſetting; becauſe no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the ſun is in the fartheſt tropic, he is for the ſame length of time without riſing; becauſe no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But, at all other times of the year, he riſes and ſets there, as in other places; becauſe all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or leſs cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon: and when the ſun is not in either of the

the tropics, his diurnal courſe muſt be in one or other of theſe circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemiſphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longeſt day and ſhorteſt night is when the ſun is in the northern tropic; and the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night is when the ſun is in the ſouthern tropic; becauſe no circle of the ſun's daily motion is ſo much above the horizon, and ſo little below it, as the northern tropic; and none ſo little above it and ſo much below it, as the ſouthern. In the ſouthern hemiſphere, the contrary.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the ſun appears for ſome number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without ſetting; and at the oppoſite time of the year without riſing; becauſe ſome part of the ecliptic never ſets in the former caſe, and as much of the oppoſite part never riſes in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from the pole, theſe places are, the longer or ſhorter is the ſun's continuing preſence or abſence.

13. If a ſhip ſets out from any port, and ſails round the earth eaſtward, to the ſame port again, let her take what time ſhe will to do it in, the people in that ſhip, in reckoning their time, will gain one compleat day at their return, or count one day more than thoſe who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by going contrary to the ſun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get ſo much the ſooner above the ſetting ſun, than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off a part proportionable to their own motion, from the length of every day, they will gain a compleat day of that ſort at their return; without gaining one moment of abſolute time more than is elapſed during their courſe, to the people at the port. If they ſail weſtward they will reckon one day leſs than the people do who reſide at the ſaid port, becauſe by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the ſun, they will keep him each particular day ſo much longer above their horizon, as anſwers to that day's courſe; and by that means, they cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without loſing one moment of abſolute time.

Hence, if two ſhips ſhould ſet out at the ſame time from any port, and ſail round the globe, one eaſtward and the other weſtward, ſo as to meet at the ſame port on any day whatever; they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they ſail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then ſix, &c.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE conſtituent parts of the earth are two, the land and water. The parts of the land are continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmus's, promontories, capes, coaſts, mountains, &c. This land is divided into two great continents, (beſides the iſlands) viz. the eaſtern and weſtern continent. The eaſtern is ſubdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the north-weſt; Aſia, on the north-eaſt; and Africa, (which is joined to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, 60 miles over) on the ſouth. The weſtern continent conſiſts of North and South America, joined by the iſthmus of Darien, 60 or 70 miles broad.

A continent is a large portion of land, containing ſeveral countries or kingdoms, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by water, as Europe. An iſland is a ſmaller part of land, quite ſurrounded by water, as Great-Britain.

Britain. A peninſula is a tract of land every where ſurrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece: and that neck of land which ſo joins it, is called an iſthmus; as the iſthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Aſia; the iſthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A promontory is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a cape; as the cape of Good-Hope. A coaſt or ſhore is that part of a country which borders on the ſea-ſide. Mountains, vallies, woods, deſerts, plains, &c. need no deſcription. The moſt remarkable are taken notice of, and deſcribed in the body of this work.

The parts of the water are oceans, ſeas, lakes, ſtraits, gulphs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extenſive oceans (beſides leſſer ſeas, which are only branches of theſe) viz. the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian ocean. The Atlantic or Weſtern Ocean, divides the eaſtern and weſtern continents, and is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific, divides America from Aſia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the Eaſt Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

The ocean is a great and ſpacious collection of water, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. The ſea is a ſmaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A lake is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A ſtrait is a narrow part of the ſea, reſtrained or lying between two ſhores, and opening a paſſage out of one ſea into another; as the ſtrait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is ſometimes called a ſound; as the ſtrait into the Baltic. A gulph is a part of the ſea running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it, except at the paſſage whereby it is communicated with the ſea or ocean. If a gulph be very large, it is called an inland ſea; as the Mediterranean: if it do not go far into the land, it is called a bay; as the Bay of Biſcay: if it be very ſmall, a creek, haven, ſtation, or road for ſhips; as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no deſcription, for theſe leſſer diviſions of water, like thoſe of land, are to be met with in moſt countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to ſtrengthen the remembrance of the great parts of land and water we have deſcribed, it may be proper to obſerve, that there is a ſtrong analogy or reſemblance between them.

The deſcription of a continent reſembles that of an ocean, an iſland encompaſſed with water reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land. A peninſula of land is like a gulph or inland ſea. A promontory, or cape of land, is like a bay or creek of ſea: and an iſthmus, whereby two lands are joined, reſembles a ſtrait, which unites one ſea to another. To this deſcription of the diviſions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water, which correſpond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we ſhall ſubjoin a table, exhibiting the ſuperficial content of the whole globe in ſquare miles, ſixty to a degree, and alſo of the ſeas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewiſe of the great empires and principal iſlands, which ſhall be placed as they are ſubordinate to one another in magnitude.

The

	Square Miles.
The Globe	199,512,595
Seas and unknown Parts	160,522,026
The Habitable World *	38,990,569
Europe	4,456,065
Asia	10,768,823
Africa	9,654,807
America	14,110,874
Perſian Empire under Darius	1,650,000
Roman Emp. in its utmoſt height	1,610,000
Ruſſian	3,303,485
Chineſe	1,749,000
Great Mogul	1,116,000
Turkiſh	960,057
Preſent Perſian	800,000
Iſlands. Borneo	228,000
Madagaſcar	168,000
Sumatra	129,000
Japan	118,000
Great Britain	72,926
Celebes	68,400
Manila	58,500
Iceland	46,000
Terra del Fuego	42,075
Mindinao	39,200
Cuba	38,400
Java	38,250

Iſlands.	Square Miles.
Hiſpaniola	36,000
Newfoundland	35,500
Ceylon	27,730
Ireland	27,457
Formoſa	17,000
Anian	11,900
Gilolo	10,400
Sicily	9400
Timor	7800
Sardinia	6600
Cyprus	6300
Jamaica	6000
Flores	6000
Ceram	5400
Briton	4000
Socatra	3600
Candia	3220
Porto Rico	3200
Corſica	2520
Zeland	1935
Majorca	1400
St. Jago	1400
Negropont	1300
Teneriff	1272
Gotland	1000
Madeira	950
St. Michael	920

Iſlands.	Squ. Mls.
Skye	900
Lewis	880
Funen	768
Yvica	625
Minorca	520
Rhodes	480
Cephalonia	420
Amboyna	400
Orkney Pomona	324
Scio	300
Martinico	260
Lemnos	220
Corfu	194
Providence	168
Man	160
Bornholm	160
Wight	150
Malta	150
Barbadoes	140
Zant	120
Antigua	100
St. Chriſtopher's	80
St. Helena	80
Guernſey	50
Jerſey	43
Bermudas	40
Rhode	36

WINDS AND TIDES.] We cannot finiſh the doctrine of the earth, without conſidering Winds and Tides, from which the changes that happen on its ſurface principally ariſe.

WINDS.] The earth on which we live is every where ſurrounded by a fine inviſible fluid, which extends to ſeveral miles above its ſurface, and is called Air. It is found by experiments, that a ſmall quantity of air is capable of being expanded, ſo as to fill a very large ſpace, or to be compreſſed into a much ſmaller compaſs than it occupied before. The general cauſe of the expanſion of air is heat, the general cauſe of its compreſſion is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmoſphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compreſſed. But when air is put in motion, we call it wind in general; and a breeze, gale, or ſtorm, according to the quickneſs or velocity of that motion. Winds therefore, which are commonly conſidered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cauſe, and act with more or leſs uniformity in proportion as the action of this cauſe is more or leſs conſtant. It is found by obſervations made at ſea, that from thirty degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees ſouth, there is a conſtant eaſt-wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the trade wind. This is occaſioned by the action of the ſun,

* The number of inhabitants computed at preſent to be in the known world at a medium, taken from the beſt calculations, are about 953 millions.

Europe contains	153	Millions
Aſia — —	500	
Africa — —	150	
America —	150	
Total	953	Millions

which in moving from eaſt to weſt heats, and conſequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a ſtream, or tide of air, always accompanies him in his courſe, and occaſions a perpetual eaſt-wind within theſe limits. This general cauſe however is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our preſent plan; which is to mention facts rather than theories.

It is likewiſe found, that in ſome parts of the Indian ocean, which are not more than two hundred leagues from land, there are periodical winds, called Monſoons, which blow half the year one way, and half the year another way. At the changing of theſe monſoons, which always happen at the equinoxes, there are terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, wind and rain. It is diſcovered alſo, that in the ſame latitudes, there is another kind of periodical winds, which blows from the land in the night and good part of the morning, and from the ſea about noon, till midnight; theſe however do not extend above two or three leagues from ſhore. Near the coaſts of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows always from the weſt, ſouth-weſt, or ſouth. On the coaſt of Peru in South America, the winds blow conſtantly from the ſouth-weſt. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and ſouth, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great-Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the weſt than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and the eaſtermoſt of the Cape Verd iſlands, there is a tract of ſea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and ſuch rains, that this ſea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

TIDES.] By the tides is meant that regular motion of the ſea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obſcurity till the immortal Sir Iſaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For having demonſtrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the ſolar ſyſtem, by which they mutually draw or attract one another, in proportion to their diſtance, it follows, that thoſe parts of the ſea which are immediately below the moon, muſt be drawn towards it, and conſequently whenever the moon is nearly vertical, the ſea will be raiſed, which occaſions the flowing of the tide there. A ſimilar reaſon occaſions the flowing of the tide likewiſe in thoſe places where the moon is in the nadir, and which muſt be diametrically oppoſite to the former; for in the hemiſphere fartheſt from the moon, the parts in the nadir being leſs attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate leſs towards the earth's center, and conſequently muſt be higher than the reſt. Thoſe parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir riſe at the ſame time, the waters in their neighbourhood will preſs towards thoſe places to maintain the equilibrium; to ſupply the places of theſe, others will move the ſame way, and ſo on to the places ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be loweſt. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we ſhall be ſenſible of the reaſon why the tides ebb and flow, twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on the globe.

The tides are higher than ordinary, twice every month, that is about the times of new and full moon, and are called Spring Tides; for at the

times the actions of both the ſun and moon are united, and draw in the ſame ſtraight line, and conſequently the ſea muſt be more elevated: at the conjunction, or when the ſun and moon are on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the waters in the Zenith, and conſequently in the Nadir; and at the oppoſition, or when the earth is between the ſun and moon, while one occaſions high water in the Zenith and Nadir, the other does the ſame. The tides are leſs than ordinary twice every month, about the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon, and are called Neap Tides; for in the quarters the ſun raiſes the waters where the moon depreſſes them, and depreſſes where the moon raiſes them: ſo that the tides are only occaſioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is neareſt us, prevails over that of the ſun. Theſe things would happen uniformly were the whole ſurface of the earth covered with water; but ſince there are a multitude of iſlands, and continents, which interrupt the natural courſe of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without regarding the ſituation of ſhores, ſtraits, and other objects, which have a ſhare in producing them.

There are frequently ſtreams or currents in the Ocean, which ſet ſhips a great way beyond their intended courſe. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Iſlands, which always runs from north to ſouth. A current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic, through the ſtraits of Gibraltar into the Mediterranean. A current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the Sound or ſtrait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel, ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. About ſmall iſlands and head lands in the middle of the ocean, the tides riſe very little, but in ſome bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they riſe from 12 to 50 feet.

MAPS.] A map is the repreſentation of the earth, or a part thereof, on a plane ſurface. Maps differ from the Globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The Globe truly repreſents the earth, but a map no more than a plane ſurface can repreſent one that is ſpherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of ſeveral of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the repreſentation will not fall very much ſhort of the globe for exactneſs; becauſe ſuch maps, if joined together, would form a ſpherical convex nearly as round as the globe itſelf.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the eaſt is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the weſt on the left hand, oppoſite to the eaſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or lines of longitude; and from ſide to ſide, parallels of latitude. The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude and longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the ſituation, diſtances, &c. of places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus to find the diſtance of two places, ſuppoſe London and Paris, by the map, we have only to meaſure the ſpace between them with the compaſſes or a bit of thread, and to apply this diſtance to the ſcale of miles, which ſhews that London is 210 miles diſtant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt from one another, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by turning theſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without meaſuring. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a

kind of ſhrub; bogs and moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcribed by ſmall dots; and roads uſually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expreſſed by figures repreſenting fathoms.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES. } There is ſcarce a greater variety in any thing than this ſort of meaſures; not only thoſe of ſeparate countries differ, as the French from the Engliſh, but thoſe of the ſame country vary, in the different provinces, and all commonly from the ſtandard. Thus the common Engliſh mile differs from the ſtatute mile, and the French have three ſorts of leagues. We ſhall here give the miles of ſeveral countries compared with the Engliſh by Dr. Halley.

The Engliſh ſtatute mile conſiſts of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.
The Ruſſian vorſt is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ Engliſh.
The Turkiſh, Italian, and old Roman leſſer mile is nearly 1 Engliſh.
The Arabian, antient and modern, is about 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ Engliſh.
The Scotch and Iriſh mile is about 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The Indian is almoſt 3 Engliſh.
The Dutch, Spaniſh, and Poliſh, is about 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The German is more than 4 Engliſh.
The Swediſh, Daniſh, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 Engliſh.
The French common League is near 3 Engliſh, and
The Engliſh marine League is 3 Engliſh miles.

PART II.

OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the antient names of countries, and even ſometimes, in ſpeaking of theſe countries, carried our hiſtorical reſearches beyond modern times; it was thought neceſſary, in order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country we deſcribe, to place before his eye a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world, to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a hiſtory of the world, we do not mean a mere liſt of dates, which, when taken by itſelf, is a thing extremely inſignificant; but an account of the moſt intereſting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the cauſes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itſelf, and indiſpenſibly requiſite to the underſtanding of the preſent ſtate of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography, and which, undoubtedly, conſtitutes the moſt uſeful branch of that ſcience.

It appears in general, from the firſt chapters of Geneſis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous, that mankind had made conſiderable improvement in the arts, and were become highly licentious in their morals and behaviour. Their irregularity gave occaſion to a memorable cataſtrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were ſwept from off the face of the earth. The deluge produced a very conſiderable change on the ſoil and atmoſphere of this globe, and gave them a form leſs friendly to the fram-

Before Ch. 3044.

and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diſeaſes which have ever ſince made ſuch havock in the world. A curious part of hiſtory follows that of the deluge, the repeopling of the world, and the riſing of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three ſons of Noah, the firſt founder of nations, was long preſerved among their ſeveral deſcendants. Japhet continued famous among the weſtern nations under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter-Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation ſome centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beaſts, and the great heroiſm of thoſe times conſiſted in deſtroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown; and by the admiration which his courage and dexterity univerſally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow creatures, and to found at Babylon the firſt monarchy, whoſe origin is particularly mentioned in hiſtory. Not long after the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Aſſur; and in Egypt, the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. That theſe events ſhould have happened ſo ſoon after the deluge, whatever ſurprize it may have occaſioned to the learned ſome centuries ago, need not in the ſmalleſt degree excite the wonder of the preſent age. We have ſeen, from many inſtances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how ſpeedily mankind encreaſe when the generative faculty lies under no reſtraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extenſive than thoſe of Babylon, Nineveh and Egypt, during this early age; and yet theſe kingdoms are not ſuppoſed to have exiſted four centuries before the diſcovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to ſeparate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God, was obliterated or obſcured. This occaſioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a choſen people. From this period the hiſtory of antient nations begins a little to expand itſelf; and we learn ſeveral particulars of very conſiderable importance. 2640. 2026.

Mankind had not long been united into ſocieties before they ſet themſelves to oppreſs and deſtroy one another. Chaderlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Perſians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, muſt not have been very conſiderable, ſince, in one of theſe expeditions, Abraham, aſſiſted only by his houſhold, ſet upon him in his retreat, and after a fierce engagement, recovered all the ſpoil that had been taken. Abraham was ſoon after obliged, by a famine, to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to ſettle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occaſion to Moſes to mention ſome particulars with regard to the Egyptians, and every ſtroke diſcovers the character of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is deſcribed in the moſt brilliant colours. He is ſurrounded with a crowd of courtiers, ſolely occupied in gratifying his paſſions. The particular governments into which this country was divided, are now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, is become the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been ſo juſtly admired for their wiſdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many ſucceſſive princes, who laboured

for their eſtabliſhment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, the firſt principles of civil order and regular governments ſeem to have been tolerably underſtood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into ſeveral diſtricts or ſeparate departments; councils, compoſed of experienced and ſelect perſons, were eſtabliſhed for the management of public affairs; granaries for preſerving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in this age, enjoyed a commerce far from inconſiderable. Theſe facts, though of an antient date, deſerve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians, that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the preſent inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained ſeparate for ſeveral centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, till the time of Ninus king of Nineveh, who, by the ſplendour of his actions, reflects light on this dark hiſtory. Fired by the ſpirit of conqueſt, he extends the bounds of his kingdom, adds Babylon to his dominion, and lays the foundation of that monarchy which, under the name of the Aſſyrian empire, kept Aſia under the yoke for many ages.

1833.

The hiſtory of Europe now begins to dawn. Javan, ſon of Japhet, and grandſon of Noah, is the ſtock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are deſcended. Javan eſtabliſhed himſelf in the iſlands in the weſtern coaſt of Aſia Minor, from whence it was impoſſible that ſome wanderers ſhould not eſcape over into Europe. To theſe firſt inhabitants ſucceeded a colony from Egypt, who, about the time of Abraham, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to eſtabliſh monarchy in this country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans ſoon fell aſunder; and the antient Greeks, who were at this time the moſt rude and barbarous people in the world, again fell back into their lawleſs and ſavage manner of life. Several colonies, however, ſoon after paſſed over from Aſia into Greece, and by remaining in that country, produced a more conſiderable alteration on the manners of its inhabitants. The moſt antient of theſe were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former ſettled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know extremely little of Ogyges or his ſucceſſors. Thoſe of Inachus endeavoured to unite the diſperſed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpoſe were not altogether unſucceſsful.

2025.

But the hiſtory of God's choſen people, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during thoſe ages. The train of curious events which occaſioned the ſettling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are univerſally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint verſion, 1794 years before Chriſt. This is a pretty remarkable æra with reſpect to the nations of hea then antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks con ſidered as altogether unknown, and which they have hardly disfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us view this period then in another poi of view, and conſider what we can learn from the ſacred writings, wi reſpect to the arts, manners and laws of antient nations.

1794.

It is a common error among writers on this ſubject, to conſider all t nations of antiquity as being on the ſame footing with regard to thoſe ma

ters. They find ſome nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in that ſituation. They diſcover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wiſdom of the firſt ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the antient world, in points of art and refinement, as between the civilized kingdoms of modern Europe, and the Indians in America, or Negroes on the coaſt of Africa. Noah was, undoubtedly, acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world; theſe he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their poſterity. Thoſe nations therefore who ſettled neareſt the original ſeat of mankind, and who had the beſt opportunities to avail themſelves of the knowledge which their great anceſtor was poſſeſſed of, early formed themſelves into regular ſocieties, and made conſiderable improvements in the arts which are moſt ſubſervient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the firſt ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the inſtruments of huſbandry, long before the diſcovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the ſacred writings. It is hardly to be ſuppoſed that the antient cities, both in Aſia and Egypt, whoſe foundation, as we have already mentioned, aſcends to the remoteſt antiquity, could have been built, unleſs the culture of the ground had been practiſed at that time. Nations who live by hunting or paſturage only, lead a wandering life, and ſeldom fix their reſidence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture; and though we cannot trace the ſteps by which it was introduced among the antient nations, we may, from detached paſſages in ſacred writ, aſcertain the progreſs which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the hiſtory of civil ſociety, that the commercial intercourſe between men muſt be pretty conſiderable, before the metals come to be conſidered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the caſe even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which eſtabliſh this fact, that the uſe of money had not been of an antient date; it had no mark to aſcertain its weight or fineneſs: and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abram gave ſilver, the metal is weighed in preſence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this ſort became more common, this practice went into diſuſe, and the quantity of ſilver was aſcertained by a particular mark, which ſaved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the ſecond from Abram. The reſilah, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, ſtamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a preciſe and ſtated value. It appears from the hiſtory of Joſeph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Iſmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, reſembling the modern caravans, who carried ſpices, perfumes, and other rich commodities from their own country into Egypt. The ſame obſervations may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the beſt chronology, was a native of Arabia Felix, and cotemporary with Jacob. He ſpeaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans who ſet out from thoſe cities of Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of this country were rather the luxuries than the conveniencies of life, we ſhall have reaſon to conclude, that the countries into which they were ſent for ſale, and particularly Egypt, were conſiderably improved in arts and

refinement; for few people think of luxuries until the uſeful arts have made high advancements among them.

In ſpeaking of commerce, we ought carefully to diſtinguiſh between the ſpecies of it which is carried on by land, or inlaid commerce, and that which is carried on by ſea; which laſt kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and ſlower in its progreſs. Had the deſcendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wiſe anceſtors, it is improbable they ſhould have ventured on navigating the open ſeas ſo ſoon as we find they did. That branch of his poſterity who ſettled on the coaſt of Paleſtine, were the firſt people of the world among whom navigation was made ſubſervient to commerce; they were diſtinguiſhed by a word which in the Hebrew tongue ſignifies merchants, and are the ſame nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phenicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful ſoil, they ſet themſelves to better their ſituation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object; and with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they paſs for the inventors of whatever is ſubſervient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his laſt words to his children: and if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of ſuch remote antiquity, the Phenicians had by this time navigated the coaſts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, ſuppoſes the knowledge of ſeveral others; aſtronomy, for inſtance, or a knowledge of the ſituation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is neceſſary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and ſo of other arts. In fact, we find that before the death of Jacob, ſeveral nations were ſo well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to meaſure by them the duration of their year. It had been an univerſal cuſtom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into the portion of a week, or ſeven days: this undoubtedly aroſe from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for thoſe nations who led a paſtoral life, or who lived under a ſerene ſky, to obſerve that the various appearances of the moon were compleated nearly in four weeks: hence the diviſion of a month. Thoſe people again who lived by agriculture, and who had got among them the diviſion of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of theſe brought back the ſame temperature of the air, or the ſame ſeaſons: hence the origin of what is called the lunar year, which has every where taken place in the infancy of ſcience. This, together with the obſervation of the fixed ſtars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, muſt have been very antient, naturally paved the way for the diſcovery of the ſolar year, which at that time would be thought an immenſe improvement in Aſtronomy. But with regard to thoſe branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered that they were peculiar to the Egyptians and a few nations of Aſia. Europe offers a frightful ſpectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeneſs and every elegant art, were deſcended from a ſavage race of men, traverſing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and ſometimes to one another. This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. The deſcendants of Noah, who removed at a great diſtance from the plains of Sennaar, loſt all connections with the civiliſed part of mankind. Their poſterity became ſtill more ignorant;

norant; and the human mind was at length ſunk into an abyſs of miſery and wretchedneſs.

We might naturally expect that, from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the hiſtory of the great empires of Egypt and Aſſyria would immerge from their obſcurity: this, however, is far from being the caſe; we only get a glimpſe of them, and they diſappear intirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninius, who ſucceeded Ninus in the Aſſyrian throne, we find an aſtoniſhing blank in the hiſtory of this empire for no leſs than eight hundred years. The ſilence of antient hiſtory on this ſubject is commonly attributed to the ſoftneſs and effeminacy of the ſucceſſors of Ninus, whoſe lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the hiſtorian, while the gentle and happy reigns of a wiſe prince paſs unobſerved and unrecorded. Seſoſtris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is ſuppoſed about this time to have mounted the throne of Egypt. By his aſſiduity and attention, the civil and military eſtabliſhments of the Egyptians received very conſiderable improvements. Egypt, in the time of Seſoſtris and his immediate ſucceſſors, was in all probability the moſt powerful kingdom upon earth, and according to the beſt calculation is ſuppoſed to have contained twenty-ſeven millions of inhabitants. But ancient hiſtory often excites, without gratifying our curioſity; for from the reign of Seſoſtris to that of Boccharis, we know not even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumſtances, the country muſt ſtill have continued in a very flouriſhing condition, for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into diſtant nations. Athens, that ſeat of learning and politeneſs, that ſchool for all who aſpire after wiſdom, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece, with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civiliſe the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the inſtitutions which Cecrops eſtabliſhed among the Athenians, it is eaſy to infer in what ſituations they muſt have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are ſo barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beaſts of the field, were propagated by accidental rencounters, and without all knowledge of thoſe to whom they owed their generation. Cranaus, who ſucceeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, purſued the ſame beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wiſe inſtitutions, to bridle the keen paſſions of a rude people.

2122. 2341. 760. 1582. 1532.

Whilſt theſe princes uſed their endeavours for civilizing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the Eaſt, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphiction, one of thoſe uncommon geniuſſes who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live and the admiration of poſterity, to think of ſome expedient by which he might unite in one plan of politicks the ſeveral independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from thoſe inteſtine diviſions which muſt render them a prey to one another, or to the firſt enemy who might think proper to invade them. Theſe reflections he communicated to the kings or leaders of the different territories, and by his eloquence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preſervation. Two deputies from each of theſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ,

1522.

and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictionic Council. In this aſſembly, whatever related to the general intereſt of the confederacy was diſcuſſed and finally determined. Amphiction likewiſe, ſenſible that thoſe political connections are the moſt laſting which are ſtrengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictions the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of thoſe who conſulted the oracle, had been amaſſed in it. This aſſembly, conſtituted on ſuch ſolid foundations, was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country preſerved its independence; and by the union which it inſpired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties againſt all the force of the Perſian empire.

Conſidering the circumſtances of the age in which it was inſtituted, the Amphictionic council is perhaps the moſt remarkable political eſtabliſhment which ever took place among mankind. The Greek ſtates, who formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual inroads and hoſtilities, ſoon began to act with concert, and to undertake diſtant expeditions for the general intereſt of the community. The firſt of
1292. theſe was the obſcure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine Sea, and to eſtabliſh colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ſhip Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; tho' we learn from Homer, and other antient writers, that ſeveral ſail were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of thoſe who conducted it, long toſſed about upon different coaſts. The rocks, at ſome diſtance from the mouth of the Euxine ſea, occaſioned great labour: they ſent forward a light veſſel, which paſſed through, but returned with the loſs of her rudder. This is expreſſed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their ſending out a bird which returned with the loſs of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obſcurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at Æon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which conſidering the mean condition of the naval art during this age, was not leſs conſiderable than the circum-navigation of the world by our modern diſcoverers. From this expedition, to that
1218. againſt Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, ſon of the Trojan king, the Greeks muſt have made a wonderful progreſs in power and opulence: no leſs than twelve hundred veſſels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. Theſe veſſels, however, were but half decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their conſtruction. If we add to theſe circumſtances, that the Greeks had not the uſe of the ſaw, an inſtrument ſo neceſſary to the carpenter, a modern muſt form but a mean notion of the ſtrength or elegance of this fleet.

Having thus conſidered the ſtate of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumſtances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our preſent undertaking, becauſe it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progreſs of government, arts and manners, which compoſe ſo great a part of our preſent work.
1260. There appears originally to have been a very remarkable reſemblance between the political ſituation of the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather a chieftain, who

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was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who presided in the administration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans or tribes was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with one another, and sometimes with their sovereign. Such a situation was in all respects extremely unfavourable: each particular state was in miniature what the whole country had been before the time of Amphiction. They required the hand of another delicate painter to shade the opposite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The history of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which these states, which, for want of union, were weak and insignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theseus, king of Attica, had acquired a flourishing reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He 1257. saw the inconveniences to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed, and he conceived that by means of the influence which his personal character, united to the royal authority with which he was invested, had universally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpose he endeavoured to maintain, and even to encrease his popularity among the peasants and artisans: he detached, as much as possible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them: he abolished the courts which had been established in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theseus, however, did not trust solely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by establishing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither strangers from all quarters, by the prospect of protection and privileges, he raised this city from an inconsiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The splendor of Athens and Theseus now totally eclipsed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the state was united in one city, and under one sovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occasioned so much confusion, by being divested of all influence and consideration, became humble and submissive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude sketch of the origin of the first monarchy, of which we have a distinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other states of Greece. This country, however, was not destined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence arose, which in a short time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theseus had divided the Athenians into three distinct classes; the nobles, the artisans, and the husbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had bestowed many privileges on the two other ranks of persons. This plan of politicks was followed by his successors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their sovereign, and partly from the progress of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became considerable and independent. These circumstances were attended 1095. with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himself to death for the safety of his people, abolished the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter should be king of

Athens,

Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was ſo much the more
1079. remarkable, as it happened almoſt at the ſame time that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and deſired a mortal ſovereign, that they might be like unto other nations.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian ſtates, much about the ſame time, aſſumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phenicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the laſt ſovereign being overcome in ſingle combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans aboliſhed the regal power. Till the days, however, of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of ſeven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican ſpirit. Other cities of Greece, after the examples of Thebes and Athens, erected themſelves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival ſtates, which by means of the ſuperiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politicks of the Greeks, deſerve our principal attention. We have ſeen a tender ſhoot of liberty ſpring up in the city of Athens, upon the deceaſe of Codrus, its laſt ſovereign. This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be pleaſant to obſerve its progreſs. The Athenians, by aboliſhing the name of king, did not intirely ſubvert the regal authority: they eſtabliſhed
1088. a perpetual magiſtrate, who, under the name of Archon, was inveſted with almoſt the ſame rights which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians, however, in time, became ſenſible that the archonic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free ſtate. After it had continued therefore three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to leſſen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by ſhortening its duration. The firſt period aſſigned for the continuance of the archonſhip in the ſame hands, was three years. But the deſire of the Athenians for a more perfect ſyſtem of freedom than had hitherto been
694. eſtabliſhed, increaſed in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again called out for a freſh reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magiſtrates ſhould be appointed for this office. Theſe magiſtrates were not only choſen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. Theſe alterations were too violent not to be attended with ſome dangerous conſequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the moſt unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens, and it was impoſſible that the antient cuſtoms of the realm, which were naturally ſuppoſed to be in part aboliſhed, by the ſucceſſive changes in the government, ſhould ſufficiently reſtrain the tumultuary ſpirits of the Athenians, in the firſt flutter of their independance. This engaged the wiſer part of the ſtate, who began to prefer any ſyſtem of government to their preſent anarchy and confuſion, to caſt their eyes on Draco, a man of an auſtere but virtuous diſpoſition, as the fitteſt perſon for compoſing a ſyſtem of law, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office, but executed it with ſo much rigour, that in the words of an ancient hiſtorian, "His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiſcriminate puniſhment of every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worſe than the diſeaſe. Affairs again
returned into confuſion and diſorder, and remained ſo till the
594. time of Solon. The gentle manners, diſintereſted virtue, and wiſdom

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more than human, by which this ſage was diſtinguiſhed, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the moſt important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, tho' this employment was aſſigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he ſhould undertake it. At length, however, the motives of public utility overcame all conſiderations of private eaſe, ſafety, and reputation, and determined him to enter on an ocean pregnant with a thouſand dangers. The firſt ſtep of his legiſlation was to aboliſh all the laws of Draco, except thoſe relating to murder. The puniſhment of this crime could not be too great; but to conſider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of right and wrong, and to render the law ineffectual, by means of its ſeverity. Solon next proceeded to new model the political law; and his eſtabliſhments on this head, remained among the Athenians, while they preſerved their liberties. He ſeems to have ſet out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen ſhould have an equal political importance, was a ſyſtem of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible into practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four claſſes, according to the wealth which they poſſeſſed, and the pooreſt claſs he rendered altogether uncapable of any public office. They had a voice however in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the laſt reſort. But leſt this aſſembly, which was compoſed of all the citizens, ſhould in the words of Plutarch, like a ſhip with too many ſails, be expoſed to the guſt of folly, tumult, and diſorder, he provided for its ſafety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The firſt of theſe courts conſiſted of four hundred perſons, a hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the aſſembly of the people; the ſecond, though but a court of juſtice, gained a prodigious aſcendant in the republic, by the wiſdom and gravity of its members, who were not choſen, but after the ſtricteſt ſcrutiny, and moſt ſerious deliberation.

Such was the ſyſtem of government eſtabliſhed by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will afford the more matter for our admiration. Upon the ſame plan moſt of the other antient republics were eſtabliſhed. To inſiſt on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor inſtructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedemon, had ſomething in it ſo peculiar, that the great lines of it at leaſt ought not to be omitted even in a delineation of this ſort. Sparta, like the other ſtates of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the juriſdiction of its own immediate chieftain. At length, the two brothers Euriſthenes and Proiles, getting poſſeſſion of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and what is extremely ſingular, their poſterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years. The Spartan government, however, did not take that ſingular form which renders it ſo remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legiſlator. The plan of policy deviſed by Lycurgus, agreed with that already deſcribed, in comprehending a ſenate and aſſembly of the people, and in general in all thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deemed moſt requiſite for the ſecurity of political independance. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whoſe office was hereditary, though their power was ſufficiently circumſcribed by proper checks and reſtraints. But the great characteriſtic of the Spartan conſtitution aroſe from this, that

1072.

870.

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in all his laws, Lycurgus had at leaſt as much reſpect to war, as to political liberty. With this view all ſorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in ſhort, which had the ſmalleſt tendency to ſoften the minds of the Spartans, was abſolutely proſcribed. They were forbid the uſe of money, they lived at public tables on the coarſeſt fare, the younger were taught to pay the utmoſt reverence to the more advanced in years, and all ranks capable to bear arms, were daily accuſtomed to the moſt painful exerciſes. To the Spartans alone war was a relaxation, rather than a hardſhip, and they behaved in it with a ſpirit of which none but a Spartan could even form a conception. In order to ſee the effect of theſe principles, and to connect under one point of view the hiſtory of the different quarters of the globe, we muſt caſt our eye on Aſia, and obſerve the events which happened in thoſe great empires, of which we have ſo long loſt ſight. We have already mentioned in what
762. obſcurity the hiſtory of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bac-
528. charis. From this period, to the diſſolution of their government, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wiſdom of their laws, and political inſtitutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of theſe ſeem to have been dictated by the true ſpirit of civil wiſdom, and were admirably calculated for preſerving order and good government in an extenſive kingdom. The great empire of Aſſyria likewiſe, which had ſo long diſappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the firſt inſtance we meet with in hiſtory, of a kingdom which fell aſunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakneſs of its ſovereigns. Sar-
767. danapulus, the laſt emperor of Aſſyria, neglecting the adminiſtration of affairs, and ſhutting himſelf up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his ſubjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raiſing their own fortune on the ruins of their maſter's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Beleſis, governor of Babylon, conſpire againſt their ſovereign, ſet fire to his capital, and divide between them his extenſive dominions. Theſe two kingdoms, ſometimes united under one prince, and ſometimes governed each by a particular ſovereign, maintained the chief ſway in Aſia, till Cyrus the Great reduced this
536. quarter of the world under the Perſian yoke. The manners of this people as brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its various departments, are elegantly deſcribed by Xenophon, a Grecian philoſopher and hiſtorian. It is not neceſſary, however, that we ſhould enter on the ſame detail upon this ſubject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, ſufficient examples of monarchical government; but how few are our republics? But the æra of Cyrus is in one reſpect extremely remarkable, becauſe with it the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be ſuppoſed to finiſh. Let us conſider then the genius of the Aſſyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and ſciences, and if poſſible diſcover what progreſs they had made in thoſe acquirements, which are moſt ſubſervient to the intereſts of ſociety.

The taſte for the great and magnificent, ſeems to have been the prevailing character of theſe nations; and they principally diſplayed it in their works of architecture. There are no veſtiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the teſtimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works, which adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined

mined in what year they were begun or finiſhed. There are three pyramids ſtill remaining in Egypt, at ſome leagues diſtance from Cairo, which are ſuppoſed to have been the burying places of the antient Egyptian kings. The largeſt is five hundred feet in height, and two thouſand ſix hundred and forty broad each way at bottom. It was a ſuperſtition among this people, derived from the earlieſt times, that even after death, the ſoul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the cuſtom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body, ſuch vegetables as experience had diſcovered to be the greateſt preſervatives againſt putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the ſame view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as theſe ſuperſtitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably ſecure a ſafe, and comfortable retreat for their ſouls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the eaſt, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that indeed they were ſuperb and magnificent ſtructures, but totally devoid of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the conſtructing of vaults. The arts, in which theſe nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were ſculpture and embroidery. As to the ſciences, they had all along continued to beſtow their principal attention on aſtronomy. It does not appear, however, that they made great progreſs in explaining the cauſes of the phenomena of the univerſe, or indeed in any ſpecies of rational and ſound philoſophy. To demonſtrate this to an intelligent reader, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that according to the teſtimony of ſacred and profane writers, the abſurd reveries of magic and aſtrology, which always decreaſe in proportion to the advancement of true ſcience, were in high eſteem among them, during the lateſt periods of their government. The countries which they occupied, were extremely fruitful, and afforded without much labour all the neceſſaries, and even luxuries of life. They had long been accuſtomed to a civilized and poliſhed life in great cities. Theſe circumſtances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an eaſy prey to the Perſians, a nation juſt emerging from barbarity, and of conſequence, brave and warlike. This was ſtill more eaſy in the infancy of the military art: when ſtrength and courage were the only circumſtances which gave the advantage one nation over another, when, properly ſpeaking, there were no fortified places, which, in modern times, have been diſcovered to be ſo uſeful in ſtopping the progreſs of a victorious enemy, and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we muſt now turn our attention to other objects.

The hiſtory of Perſia, after the reign of Cyrus, offers little, when conſidered in itſelf, that merits our regard: but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly intereſting. The monarchs who ſucceeded Cyrus, gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exerciſe theſe virtues, which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's inſtitutions: Athens had juſt recovered from the tyranny of the Piſiſtratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and uſurped the ſupreme power. Such was their ſituation, when the luſt of univerſal empire, which never fails to torment the breaſt of tyrants, led Darius to ſend forth his numerous armies into Greece. But the Perſians were no longer thoſe invincible ſoldiers, who under Cyrus had conquered Aſia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and ſervitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whoſe 520.

minds were nobly animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of Marathon, with ten thouſand Athenians, overcame the Perſian army of a hundred thouſand foot, and ten thouſand cavalry. His countrymen, Themiſtocles and Ariſtides, the firſt celebrated for his abilities, the ſecond for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not however fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the nobleſt monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over ſervitude, deſerve to be read at length in antient writers.

484. Xerxes, the ſon of Darius, came in perſon into Greece, with two million one hundred thouſand men, and being every where defeated by ſea and land, eſcaped to Aſia in a fiſhing boat. Such was the ſpirit of the Greeks, ſo well did they know that "wanting virtue, life "is pain and woe, that wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks "around for happineſs in vain." Though the Perſian war concluded glorioufly for the Greeks, it is, in a great meaſure, to this war, that the ſubſequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they ſuffered the loſs of ſo many brave men, but thoſe in which they acquired an immenſity of Perſian gold; it was not their enduring ſo many hardſhips in the courſe of the war, but their connection with the Perſians, after the concluſion of it, which ſubverted the Grecian eſtabliſhments, and ruined the moſt virtuous confederacy that ever exiſted upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories: delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another: their quarrels were fomented by Perſian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them deſirous of more. Hence proceeded

463. the famous Peloponneſian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedemonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other ſtates of Greece. They continued to weaken themſelves, by theſe inteſtine diviſions, till Philip, king of Macedon, (a country till his time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful) rendered himſelf the abſolute maſter of Greece,

431. by the battle of the Cheronæa. But this conqueſt is one of the firſt we meet with in hiſtory, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his ſchemes ſo deep, and by bribery, promiſes and intrigues, gained over ſuch a number of conſiderable perſons in the ſeveral ſtates of Greece to his intereſt, that another day would have put in his poſſeſſion what Cheronæa had denied him. The Greeks had loſt that virtue, which was the baſis of their confederacy. Their popular governments ſerved only to give a ſanction to their licentiouſneſs and corruption. The principal orators, in moſt of their ſtates, were bribed into the ſervice of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demoſthenes, aſſiſted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more ſeductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, uſed the ſureſt method of winning their affections.

338.

Philip had propoſed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long ſurvive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his deceaſe, his ſon Alexander was choſen general againſt the Perſians, by all the Grecian ſtates, except the Athenians and Thebans. Theſe made a feeble effort for expiring liberty. But they were

330. obliged to yield to ſuperior force. Secure on the ſide of Greece, Alexander ſet out on his Perſian expedition, at the head of thirty thouſand foot, and five thouſand horſe. The ſucceſs of this army in conquering

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the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles, in overrunning and ſubduing not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, the very names of which had never reached an European ear, has been deſcribed by many authors both antient and modern, and conſtitutes a ſingular part of the hiſtory of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and ſucceſs, Alexander died at Babylon. 323. His captains, after ſacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives riſe to a number of æras and events, too complicated for our preſent purpoſe, and even too unintereſting. After conſidering therefore the ſtates of arts and ſciences in Greece, we ſhall paſs over to the Roman affairs, where the hiſtorical deduction is more ſimple, and alſo more important.

The bare names of illuſtrious men, who flouriſhed in Greece, from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the higheſt pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings of this glorious day. Though the eaſtern nations had raiſed magnificent and ſtupendous ſtructures, the Greeks were the firſt people in the world, who in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Epheſian Diana, are the firſt monuments of good taſte. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who ſettled in Aſia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias, the Athenian, is the firſt ſculptor whoſe works have been immortal. Zeuxis Parrhaſius and Timantheus, during the ſame age, firſt diſcovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Compoſition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Homer, the tragic Poets Æſchylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the firſt conſiderable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave ſimplicity and elegance to proſaic writings. Iſocrates gave it cadence and harmony, but it was left to Thucydides and Demoſthenes, to diſcover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not however in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every ſpecies of philoſophy was cultivated among them with the utmoſt ſucceſs. Not to mention the divine Socrates, whoſe character has had the honour to be compared with that of the great founder of our religion; his three diſciples, Plato, Ariſtotle, and Xenophon, may for ſtrength of reaſoning, juſtneſs of ſentiment, and propriety of expreſſion, be put on a footing with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long courſe of years, has taught us many ſecrets in nature, with which theſe philoſophers were unacquainted, and which no ſtrength of genius could divine. But whatever ſome vain empirics in learning may pretend, the moſt learned and ingenious men, both in France and in England, have acknowledged the ſuperiority of the Greek philoſophers, and have reckoned themſelves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expreſſion. But the Greeks were not leſs diſtinguiſhed for their active than for their ſpeculative talents. It would be endleſs to recount the names of their famous ſtateſmen and warriors, and it is impoſſible to mention a few without doing injuſtice to a great number. War was firſt reduced into a ſcience by the Greeks. Their ſoldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardor for glory, and not from a dread of their ſuperiors. We have ſeen the effect of this military virtue in their wars againſt the Perſians: the cauſe of it was the wiſe laws which Amphiction, Solon and Lycurgus, had eſta- 448.

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bliſhed in Greece. But we muſt now leave this nation, whoſe hiſtory, both civil and philoſophical, is as important, as their territory was inconſiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are ſtill more intereſting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of modern Europe.

753. The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, when we view him as the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme inſignificance. But when we conſider him as the founder of an empire as extenſive as the world, and whoſe progreſs and decline have occaſioned the two greateſt revolutions, that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being intereſted in his conduct. His diſpoſition was extremely martial; and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall but independent diſtricts, afforded a noble field for the diſplay of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours, and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandize themſelves, but even to ſubſiſt. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may obſerve the ſame maxims by which the Romans afterwards became maſters of the world. Inſtead of deſtroying the nations he had ſubjected, he united them to the Roman ſtate, whereby Rome acquired a new acceſſion of ſtrength from every war ſhe undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumſtance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any conſiderable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the uſe of that weapon, and improved the military ſyſtem of the Romans, by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both theſe maxims, by means of which the Roman ſtate arrived at ſuch a pitch of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, inſtantly threw aſide the latter, and made uſe of the Sabine buckler in fighting againſt other ſtates. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He inſtituted what was called the Senate, a court originally compoſed of a hundred perſons, diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and experience. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly paſſions of his followers: and after a long reign ſpent in promoting the civil or military intereſts of his country, was, according to the beſt

715. conjecture, treacherouſly put to death by the members of that ſenate, which he himſelf had inſtituted.

The ſucceſſors of Romulus were all very extraordinary perſonages. Numa, who came next to him, eſtabliſhed the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inſpired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the ſoul of their military diſcipline. Tullus Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign, for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the ſeventh and laſt king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to ſupport it by the moſt cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the inſolence of his ſon Sextus Tarquinius, who, by diſhonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady,

510. affronted the whole nation, occaſioned the expulſion of the Tarquin family, and with it the diſſolution of the regal government. As the Romans however were continually engaged in war, they found it neceſſary

neceſſary to have ſome officer inveſted with ſupreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterprizes. In the room of the kings therefore they appointed two annual magiſtrates called Conſuls, who, without creating the ſame jealouſy, ſucceeded to all the power of their ſovereigns. This revolution was extremely favourable to the Roman grandeur. The conſuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were deſirous of ſignalizing their reign by ſome great action: each vied with thoſe who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out againſt ſome new enemy. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inſpired to deeds of valour by every conſideration which could excite them: that the citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, we need not be ſurprized, that they ſhould, in the courſe of ſome centuries, extend their power all over Italy. 264.

The Romans, now ſecure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turn their eyes abroad, and meet with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This ſtate had been founded on the coaſt of the Mediterranean in Africa, ſome time before Rome, by a colony of Phenicians, and, according to the practice of their mother country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatneſs.

Carthage, in this deſign, had proved wonderfully ſucceſsful. She now commanded both ſides of the Mediterranean. Beſides that of Africa, which ſhe almoſt entirely poſſeſſed, ſhe had extended herſelf on the Spaniſh ſide, through the ſtreights. Thus miſtreſs of the ſea, and of commerce, ſhe had ſeized on the iſlands of Corſica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itſelf; and the Romans were too nearly threatened not to take up arms. Hence a ſucceſſion of hoſtilities between theſe rival ſtates, 264. known in hiſtory by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic, when Rome was a truckling ſtate; but ſhe was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political conſtitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was compoſed of ſoldiers. The firſt war with Carthage taught the Romans the art of fighting on the ſea, with which they had hitherto been unacquainted. A Carthaginian veſſel was wrecked on their coaſts; they uſed it for a model, in three months fitted out a fleet, and the conſul Duilius, who fought 260. their firſt naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpoſe to mention all the tranſactions of theſe wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the ſpirit which then animated this people. Being taken priſoner in Africa, he is ſent back on his parole to negotiate a change of priſoners. He maintains in the ſenate, the propriety of that law, which cuts off from thoſe who ſuffered themſelves to be taken, all hopes of being ſaved, and returns to a certain death. 255.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal the Carthaginian, was the moſt inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred againſt the Romans, and having ſettled the inteſtine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inſpire his ſon, though but nine years old, with his own ſentiments. For this purpoſe he ordered a ſolemn ſacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his ſon to the altar, aſked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition againſt the Romans; the courageous boy, not only

conſented to go, but conjured his father by the gods preſent, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will ſwear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied, and the ſolemnity of the ceremony, and the ſacredneſs of the oath, made ſuch an impreſſion upon his mind, as nothing afterwards could ever efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of
220. age, he croſſes the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and in a moment falls down upon Italy. The loſs of four battles threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily ſides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of
212. Syracuſe, declares againſt the Romans, and almoſt all Italy abandons them. In this extremity Rome owed its preſervation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, deſpiſing popular clamour, and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The ſtrength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raiſes the ſiege of Nola, takes Syracuſe, and revives the drooping ſpirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of theſe great men, but ſaw ſomething more divine in the young Scipio. The ſucceſs of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converſe with the gods. At the
210. age of four and twenty, he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had loſt their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the firſt aſſault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings ſubmit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and ſees her armies defeated. Hannibal, ſixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Car-
202. thage is rendered tributary, gives hoſtages, and engages never to enter upon a war, but with the conſent of the Roman people. After the conqueſt of Carthage, Rome had inconſiderable wars but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconſiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by thoſe quarrels which had laſted ſince the death of Alexander the Great. Their ſcene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the Eaſt. The ſtates of Greece had once more diſengaged themſelves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Acheans, and Beotians; each of theſe was an aſſociation of free cities, which had aſſemblies and magiſtrates in common. Of them all the Etolians were the moſt conſiderable. The kings of Macedon maintained that ſuperiority, which, in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally poſſeſſed over his leſs powerful neighbours. Philip, the preſent monarch, had rendered himſelf odious to the Greeks, by ſome unpopular and tyrannical ſteps; the Etolians were moſt irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their aſſiſtance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garriſons were obliged to evacuate Greece: the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the ſtates of Greece became their dependants. The Etolians, diſcovering their firſt error, endeavoured to remedy it by another ſtill more dangerous to themſelves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them againſt Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them againſt the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourſe to the ſame prince, who was at this time the moſt powerful in the Eaſt, and the ſucceſſor to the dominions of Alexander in Aſia. But Antiochus did

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not follow his advice ſo much, as that of the Etolians; for inſtead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be moſt vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a ſmall body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Aſia. In this war the Romans made uſe of Philip, for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now purſue Antiochus, the laſt object of their reſentment, into Aſia, and having vanquiſhed him by ſea and land, compel him to ſubmit to an infamous treaty. In theſe conqueſts the Romans ſtill allowed the ancient inhabitants to poſſeſs their territory; they did not even change the form of government: the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people, which, however, under a ſpecious name, concealed the moſt ſervile of all conditions, and inferred, that they ſhould ſubmit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on theſe eaſy conqueſts, we have reaſon to be aſtoniſhed at the reſiſtance which the Romans met with from a barbarous prince, Mithridates king of Pontus. This monarch however had great reſources. His kingdom, bordering on the inacceſſible mountains of Caucaſus, abounded in a race of men, whoſe minds were not enervated by pleaſure, and whoſe bodies were firm and vigorous. 182.

The different ſtates of Greece and Aſia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not ſpirit to ſhake it off, were tranſported at finding a prince, who dared to ſhew himſelf an enemy to the Romans, and chearfully ſubmitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was compelled to yield to the ſuperior ſtar of the Romans. Vanquiſhed ſucceſſively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length ſubdued by Pompey, and ſtripped of his dominions and of his life. In Africa the Roman arms met with equal ſucceſs. Marius in conquering Jugurtha, made all ſecure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps, began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonenſis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The ſame Marius, whoſe name was ſo terrible in Africa, made the north of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians retired to their wilds and deſerts, leſs formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome conquered the world, there ſubſiſted an internal war within her walls. This war had ſubſiſted from the firſt periods of the government. Rome, after the expulſion of her kings, enjoyed but a nominal liberty. The deſcendants of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Patricians, were inveſted with ſo many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependance, and became determined to ſhake it off. A thouſand diſputes on this ſubject aroſe betwixt them and the Patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty. 65. 105. 121. 102.

Theſe diſputes, however, while the Romans preſerved their virtue, were not attended with any dangerous conſequences. The Patricians, who loved their country, chearfully parted with ſome of their privileges to ſatisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the firſt offices of the ſtate, and though they had the power of nomination, always named Patricians. But when the Romans, by the conqueſt of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries, and refinements; when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eaſtern courts, and ſported with every thing juſt and honourable, in order to obtain them, the ſtate, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue

on either ſide, to keep it together, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody ſeditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguiſhable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it eaſy for any turbulent demagogue, to put them in action againſt each other. The love of their country was now no more than a ſpecious name; the better ſort were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline, and the ſoldiers, compoſed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They knew none but their commander; under his banner they fought and conquered and plundered, and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embrue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conqueſts, however, which required their keeping on foot ſeveral armies at the ſame time, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Theſe armies were ſo many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the ſoldiers of Sylla, Rome would have ſurrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæſar at length appears. By ſubduing the Gauls, he gained his country the moſt uſeful conqueſt it ever made. Pompey, his
58. only rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharſalia. Cæſar victorious
48. appears in a moment all over the world, in Egypt, in Aſia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all ſides, he is acknowledged maſter at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Caſſius think to give Rome her liberty, by ſtabbing him
43. in the ſenate houſe. But they only ſubject her to tyrants, who, without his clemency or abilities, were not inferior in ambition. The republic falls into the hands of Mark Anthony; young Cæſar Oc-
31. tavianus, nephew to Julius Cæſar, wreſts it from him by the ſea-fight at Actium; there is no Brutus nor Caſſius, to put an end to his life. The friends of liberty have killed themſelves in deſpair, and Octavius, under the name of Auguſtus, and title of emperor, remains the undiſturbed maſter of the empire. During theſe civil commotions, the Romans ſtill preſerved the glory of their arms among diſtant nations, and while it was unknown who ſhould be maſter at Rome, the Romans were without diſpute the maſters of their world; the military diſcipline and valour aboliſhed all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Perſian, the Greek, the Aſſyrian, and Macedonian glory, and they were now only a name. No ſooner therefore was Octavius eſtabliſhed on the throne, than embaſſadors from all quarters of the known world, crowd to make their ſubmiſſions. Æthiopia ſues for peace, the Parthians, who had been a moſt formidable enemy, court his friendſhip, the Indies ſeek his alliance, Pannonia acknowledges him, Germany dreads him, and the Weſer receives his laws.
24. Victorious by ſea and land, he ſhuts the temple of Janus. The
15. whole earth lives in peace under his power, and Jeſus Chriſt comes
7. into the world.

Having thus traced the progreſs of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to ſay a few words with regard to the arts, ſciences, and manners of that people. During the firſt ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect, or rather contempt of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politicks, and agriculture were the only arts they ſtudied, becauſe they were the only arts they eſteemed. But upon the downfal of Carthage, the Romans, having no enemy to dread from abroad, began to taſte the ſweets of ſecurity, and to cultivate

cultivate the arts. Their progreſs however was not gradual as in the other countries we have deſcribed. The conqueſt of Greece at once put them in poſſeſſion of every thing moſt rare, curious or elegant. Aſia, which was the next victim, offered all its ſtores, and the Romans, from the moſt ſimple people, ſpeedily became acquainted with the arts, the luxuries, and refinements of the whole earth. Eloquence they had always cultivated as the high road to eminence and preferment. The orations of Cicero are only inferior to thoſe of Demoſthenes, which, according to all our ideas, are perfect productions. In poetry Virgil yields only to Homer, whoſe verſe, like the proſe of Demoſthenes, is perfect and inimitable. Horace, however, in his ſatires and epiſtles, had no model among the Greeks, and ſtands to this day unrivalled in that ſpecies of writing. In hiſtory the Romans can boaſt of Livy, who poſſeſſes all the natural eaſe of Herodotus, and is more deſcriptive, more eloquent and ſentimental. Tacitus indeed did not flouriſh in the Auguſtan age, but his works do himſelf the greateſt honour, while they diſgrace his country and human nature, whoſe corruption and vices he paints in the moſt ſtriking colours. In philoſophy, if we except the works of Cicero, and the ſyſtem of the Greek philoſopher Epicurus, deſcribed in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during the time of the republic, made not the leaſt attempt. In tragedy, they never produced any thing excellent; and Terence, though remarkable for purity of ſtyle, wants that comica vis, or lively vein of humour, which diſtinguiſhed the Greek comedians, and which diſtinguiſhes our Shakeſpeare.

We now return to our hiſtory, and are arrived at an æra, which preſents us with a ſet of monſters, under the name of emperors, whoſe hiſtories, a few excepted, diſgrace human nature. They did not indeed aboliſh the forms of the Roman republic, tho' they extinguiſhed its liberties, and while they were practiſing the moſt unwarrantable cruelties upon their ſubjects, they themſelves were the ſlaves of their ſoldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Auguſtus, became the moſt deſpotic empire that ever ſubſiſted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only recal to our mind the ſituation of Turkey at preſent. It is of no importance therefore to conſider the character of the emperors, ſince they had no power but what aroſe from a mercenary ſtanding army, nor to enter into a detail with regard to the tranſactions of the court, which were directed by that caprice, and cruelty and corruption, which univerſally prevail under a deſpotic government. When it is ſaid that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Aſia. A more difficult taſk ſtill remained, for the emperors to ſubdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though theſe countries had been diſcovered, they were not effectually ſubdued by the Roman generals. Theſe nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the ſuperiority of their diſcipline than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars, with the Germans, are deſcribed by Tacitus, and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is eaſy to diſcover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they ſubmitted to a foreign yoke. From the obſtinate reſiſtance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in ſubduing the other nations of Europe. The conteſts were on both ſides bloody; the countries of Europe were ſucceſſively laid

waſte, the inhabitants periſhed in the field, many were carried into ſlavery, and but a feeble remnant ſubmitted to the Roman power. This ſituation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happineſs of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourſe with the Romans, acquired ſome taſte for the arts, ſciences, language, and manners, of their new maſters. Theſe however were but miſerable conſolations for the loſs of liberty, for being deprived of the uſe of their arms, for being overawed by mercenary ſoldiers kept in pay to reſtrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumſtance which could ſupport them under theſe complicated calamities, was the hope of ſeeing better days.

The Roman empire, now ſtretched out to ſuch an extent, had loſt its ſpring and force. It contained within itſelf the ſeeds of diſſolution; and the violent irruption of the Goths and Vandals, and other Barbarians, haſtened its deſtruction. Theſe fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various provinces of Germany, which had never been ſubdued by the Romans, or were ſcattered over the vaſt countries of the north of Europe, and north-weſt of Aſia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country, by that reſtleſsneſs which actuates the minds of Barbarians, and makes them rove from home in queſt of plunder, or new ſettlements. The firſt invaders met with a powerful reſiſtance from the ſuperior diſcipline of the Roman legions; but this, inſtead of daunting men of a ſtrong and impetuous temper, only rouſed them to vengeance. They return to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniencies and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or bleſſed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they had fought, of the friends they had loſt, and warm them with reſentment againſt their opponents. Great bodies of armed men, (ſays an elegant hiſtorian, in deſcribing this ſcene of deſolation) with their wives and children, and ſlaves and flocks, iſſued forth, like regular colonies, in queſt of new ſettlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deſerted were occupied by more remote tribes of Barbarians. Theſe, in their turn, puſhed forward into more fertile countries, and like a torrent continually increaſing, rolled on, and ſwept every thing before them. Wherever the Barbarians marched, their rout was marked with blood. They ravaged or deſtroyed all around them. They made no diſtinction between what was ſacred, and what was profane. They reſpected no age, or ſex, or rank. If a man was called upon to fix upon the period, in the hiſtory of the world, during which, the condition of the human race was moſt calamitous and afflicted, he would, without heſitation, name that which elapſed from the death of Theodoſius the Great, A. D. 395, to the eſtabliſhment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The contemporary authors, who beheld that ſcene of deſolation, labour, and are at a loſs for expreſſions to deſcribe the horror of it. *The ſcourge of God, the deſtroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they diſtinguiſh the moſt noted of the barbarous leaders.

Conſtantine, who was emperor about the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Chriſtianity, changed the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. This occaſioned a prodigious alteration. The weſtern and eaſtern provinces were ſeparated from each other, and governed by different ſovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions

from

from the Rhine and the Danube to the eaſt, threw down the weſtern barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Rome (now known by the name of the Weſtern Empire, in contradiſtinction to Conſtantinople, which, from its ſituation, was called the Eaſtern Empire) weakened by this diviſion, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its antient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Adoaces, a Barbarian chieftain, ſits down on the throne of the Cæſars. Theſe irruptions into the empire, were gradual and ſucceſſive. The immenſe fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages, and ſeveral centuries were employed in demoliſhing it. The antient diſcipline of the Romans, in military affairs, was ſo efficacious, that the remains of it deſcended to their ſucceſſors, and muſt have proved an over-match for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the univerſal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loſs to find new provocatives. The moſt diſtant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exerciſed, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite diſh. The tyranny, and the univerſal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or as they are called Cæſars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of thoſe nations, who overcame them.

Towards the cloſe of the ſixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were maſters of the ſouthern, and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; the Goths and Lombards, of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarce any veſtige of the Roman policy, juriſprudence, arts or literature remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dreſſes, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period till the ſixteenth century, Europe exhibited a picture of moſt melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, ſcience, taſte, were words ſcarce in uſe during theſe ages. Perſons of the higheſt rank, and in the moſt eminent ſtations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not underſtand the breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; ſome of them could ſcarce read it. The human mind neglected, uncultivated, and depreſſed, ſunk into the moſt profound ignorance. The ſuperior genius of Charlemagne, who, about the beginning of the ninth century, governed France, Germany, with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, endeavoured to diſpel this darkneſs, and gave their ſubjects a ſhort glimpſe of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and inſtitutions. The darkneſs returned, and ſettled over Europe more thick and heavy than formerly.

A new diviſion of property gradually introduced a new ſpecies of government formerly unknown; which ſingular inſtitution is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *Feudal Syſtem*. The king or general, who led the Barbarians to conqueſt, parcelled out the lands of the vanquiſhed among his chief officers, binding thoſe on whom they were beſtowed, to follow his ſtandard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the ſovereign, and in diſtributing portions of their lands among their dependants, annexed the ſame condition to the grant. But though this ſyſtem ſeemed to be admirably calculated for defence againſt a foreign enemy, it degenerated into a ſyſtem of oppreſſion.

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The uſurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a ſtate of actual ſervitude. They were deprived of the natural and moſt unalienable rights of humanity. They were ſlaves fixed to the ſoil, which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by ſale, or by conveyance. Every offended baron, or chieftain, buckled on his armour, and ſought redreſs at the head of his vaſſals. His adverſaries met him in like hoſtile array. The kindred and dependants of the aggreſſor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter *.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. They declared, that as all men were by nature free born, they determined it ſhould be ſo in reality as well as in name. In order to create ſome power, that might counterbalance thoſe potent vaſſals, who, while they enſlaved the people, controuled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. Theſe privileges aboliſhed all marks of ſervitude, and formed them into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magiſtrates of their own nomination.

The acquiſition of liberty made ſuch a happy change in the condition of mankind, as rouſed them from that ſtupidity and inaction into which they had been ſunk by the wretchedneſs of their former ſtate. A ſpirit of induſtry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flouriſh.

Various cauſes contributed to revive this ſpirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourſe between different nations. Conſtantinople, the capital of the eaſtern, or Greek empire, had eſcaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the weſt. In this city, ſome remains of literature and ſcience were preſerved: this too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where ſome reliſh for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. They communicated ſome knowledge of theſe to their neighbours in Italy; and the cruſades, which were begun by the Chriſtian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Turks from Jeruſalem, opened a communication between Europe and the Eaſt. Conſtantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Chriſtian armies, in their way to Paleſtine or on their return from thence. Though the object of theſe expeditions was conqueſt and not commerce, and though the iſſue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the cloſe of the holy war, the mariners compaſs was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian ſtates, particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa, began to eſtabliſh a regular commerce with the Eaſt, and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. Theſe commodities they diſpoſed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire ſome taſte of elegance, unknown to their predeceſſors, or deſpiſed by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almoſt in the hands of the

* This Gothic ſyſtem ſtill prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland ſo late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, ſome relicks of theſe Gothic inſtitutions are perceivable at this day.

the Italians, more commonly known in thoſe ages by the name of Lombards. Companies or ſocieties of Lombard merchants ſettled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of theſe companies ſettled in London; hence the name of Lombard Street.

While the Italians in the ſouth of Europe cultivated trade with ſuch induſtry and ſucceſs, the commercial ſpirit awakened in the North towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infeſted that ſea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburgh, ſoon after they had began to open ſome trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived ſuch advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a ſhort time, eighty of the moſt conſiderable cities, ſcattered through thoſe vaſt countries of Germany and Flanders which ſtretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the Hanſeatic League; which became ſo formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greateſt monarchs. The members of this powerful aſſociation formed the firſt ſyſtematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general aſſemblies. They ſupplied the reſt of Europe with naval ſtores; and pitched on different towns, the moſt eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, where they eſtabliſhed ſtaples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not leſs uſeful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the center of communication between the Lombards and Hanſeatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to ſuch extent as well as advantage, as ſpirited among them a general habit of induſtry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the moſt opulent, the moſt populous, and beſt cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flouriſhing ſtate of theſe provinces, of which he diſcovered the true cauſe, Edward III. of England, endeavoured to excite a ſpirit of induſtry among his own ſubjects, who, blind to the advantages of their ſituation, and ignorant of the ſource from which opulence was deſtined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt thoſe manufactures, the materials of which they furniſhed to foreigners. By alluring Flemiſh artiſans to ſettle in his dominions, as well as by many wiſe laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufactures of England; and firſt turned the active and enterprizing genius of his people towards thoſe arts which have raiſed the Engliſh to the firſt rank among commercial nations.

The Chriſtian princes, after their great loſſes in the cruſades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendſhip of the great khans of Tartary, whoſe fame in arms had reached the moſt remote corners of Europe and Aſia, that they might be ſome check upon the Turks, who had been ſuch enemies to the Chriſtian name; and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers, ſerving occaſionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the fineſt countries of Aſia.

The Chriſtian embaſſies were managed chiefly by monks, a wandering profeſſion of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties

and danger, found their way to the remote courts of these infidels. The Engliſh philoſopher, Roger Bacon, was ſo induſtrious as to collect from their relations, or traditions, many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrims, and other books of travels. The firſt regular traveller of the monkiſh kind, who committed his diſcoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with ſome of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Chriſtian ſubjects in that prince's extenſive dominions. Soon after this, a ſpirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general; and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, ſerved in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greateſt princes of Tartary, whoſe conqueſts reached to the moſt remote corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the uſe of gunpowder and artillery; the diſcovery made by a German chymiſt being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the riſing power of the Turks, had checked their progreſs, the Chriſtian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vaſt riches of the Eaſt Indies, inſpired their countrymen with a ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery, and were the firſt that rendered a paſſage thither by ſea probable and practicable. The Portugueſe had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their diſcovery of the Cape of Good-Hope, Great-Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

At firſt they contented themſelves with ſhort voyages, creeping along the coaſts of Africa, diſcovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progreſs ſouthward, they, in the year 1497, were ſo fortunate as to ſail beyond the cape, which opened a paſſage by ſea to the eaſtern ocean, and all thoſe countries known by the names of India, China and Japan.

While the Portugueſe were intent upon a paſſage to India by the eaſt, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of ſailing thither by the weſt. His propoſal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and abſurd, he laid his ſcheme ſucceſſively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better ſucceſs. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only reſource, and there, after eight years attendance, he ſucceeded, through the intereſt of queen Iſabella, who raiſed money upon her jewels to defray the expences of his expedition, and to do honour to her ſex.

Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon the moſt adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted.

In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with, and his ſailors, always diſcontented, began to inſiſt upon his return, threatning, in caſe of refuſal, to throw him overboard; but the firmneſs of the commander, and the diſcovery of land, after a paſſage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his ſurprize, that this could not be the Indies he was in queſt of, and which he ſoon diſcovered to be a new world: of which the reader will find a more circumſtantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs into which ſhe had been ſunk ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire. Theſe diſcoveries, from

from which ſuch wealth was deſtined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were ſucceeded by others of unſpeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and ſciences; and, laſtly, the happy reformation in religion, all diſtinguiſh the 15th and 16th century as the firſt æra of modern hiſtory. "It was in theſe ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political ſyſtem, in which each took a ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained, with leſs variation than could have been expected, after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revolutions, and ſo many foreign wars, of which we have given ſome account in the hiſtory of each particular ſtate in the following ſheets. The great events which happened then have not hitherto ſpent their force. The political principles and maxims then eſtabliſhed, ſtill continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or rendered general, ſtill influence the councils of European nations."

From all which it ſeems extremely certain, that the concurrence of ſo many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no leſs certain, that in contending for it, they muſt weaken their own force, and may at length render themſelves uncapable of defending even their juſt poſſeſſions. The partial conqueſts they may make are extremely illuſive; inſtead of promoting, they rather oppoſe their deſigns; the more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker, and great projects have not been ſo often executed by ſlow reiterated efforts, as in the courſe of a few years, and ſometimes by a ſingle expedition. A prince may form a deliberate plan of deſtroying the rights of his ſubjects; he may proceed by ſlow degrees in the execution of it, and if he die before it is compleated, his ſucceſſor may purſue the ſame ſteps, and avail himſelf of what was done before him. But external conqueſts cannot be concealed; they generally occaſion more fear than harm, and are almoſt always leſs ſolid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occaſion to, by which the prince, who, by misfortune, has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to the laſt extremities. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the beſt eſtabliſhed in the ſcience of politicks. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The ſtates of Greece, in particular, delivered from the terror of the Perſian invaſions, exhibit the ſame truth in a great variety of lights. There was not one of the moſt conſiderable of theſe little ſocieties, but in its turn imbibed the frenzy of conqueſt, and in its turn too was reduced by this frenzy to the utmoſt miſery and diſtreſs *. The modern examples are ſo well known, that it is almoſt unneceſſary to mention them. Who does not know that the houſe of Auſtria † became the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great Britain! Had that family never been the object of

* The reader who would ſee this ſubject fully illuſtrated, may look at Iſocrates' Oration on the Peace; one of the moſt finiſhed models of antient eloquence; and which contains a rich fund of political knowledge.

† Germany, Holland, and all the Low Countries, ſeveral ſtates in Italy, the kingdom of Spain, with the vaſt empires of Mexico and Peru, in America, were at the time of the reformation governed by Charles V. of the Houſe of Auſtria: territories, which, though exceeding in riches and extent the moſt powerful empires of antiquity, did not gratify the ambition of that monarch, and his whole reign was a ſcene of hoſtility againſt his neighbours. One of his ſucceſſors, the preſent empreſs queen, and the repreſentative of that family, was, however, upon the death of her father, not only ſtript of her dominions, but reduced ſo low as to be in want of neceſſaries, and contributions were actually raiſed for her in Great-Britain, whoſe king engaged in her cauſe, and at the expence of this nation reinſtated her upon the imperial throne.

of fear, the empreſs queen would never have become the object of compaſſion. France affords an example no leſs ſtriking. The nerves of that kingdom were ſtrained ſo far beyond their ſtrength, by an ambitious monarch, that it is impoſſible they ſhould acquire their natural tone in the courſe of this century. The debility of their late efforts, prove the greatneſs of the evil, and the inefficacy of any remedy which is not ſlow and gradual.

GREAT BRITAIN is at preſent that kingdom in Europe which enjoys the greateſt proſperity and glory. She ought to be the more attentive therefore to preſerve ſo brilliant an exiſtence. The ſpirit of conqueſt neither ſuits with her phyſical ſituation, nor with her political conſtitution. Every attempt to extend her dominion, muſt be attended with two infallible conſequences. The firſt, to alarm her neighbours; the ſecond, to augment her armies. We have ſaid enough to ſhew the danger of the one; the other well deſerves to be traced thro' all its effects. The encreaſe of taxes, the decay of manufactures, that ſpecies of commerce which alone is not precarious, are objects which need only to be hinted at.—But the augmentation of armies muſt, in ſome future period, be attended with a conſequence of another kind; that is, the eſtabliſhment of abſolute monarchy in Great-Britain. The farther our conqueſts are removed from home, this danger becomes the greater. Britiſh ſubjects of conſideration or property will, in time, grow weary of tranſporting themſelves into climates ſcorched by heat, or frozen by cold. Our foreign armies muſt, of courſe, be compoſed of men, who, having no moral tie to attach them to their native country, will ſoon, by living in a diſtant clime, loſe all natural affection for the land in which they were born. This conſequence ſeems to eſcape ſome of our modern ſtateſmen, guided more perhaps by ſentiment than by reaſon, and who, by ſpeeches extremely ſeductive to human pride or ambition, would inadvertently lead this country into a courſe of public meaſures that naturally tends to deſpotiſm.

PART III.

OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever rouſed the attention of mankind. But incapable of elevating their ideas to all the ſublimity of his perfections, they have too often brought down his perfections to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to thoſe nations whoſe religion had no other foundation but the natural feelings, and more often the irregular paſſions of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven reſpecting this important object. In deducing the hiſtory of religion, therefore, we muſt make the ſame diſtinction which we have hitherto obſerved in tracing the progreſs of arts, ſciences, and of civilization among mankind. We muſt ſeparate what is human from what is divine, what had its origin from particular revelations from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unaſſiſted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this diſtinction we find that in the firſt ages of the world, the religion of the eaſtern nations was pure and luminous. It aroſe from a divine ſource, and was not then diſfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, theſe began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obſcured, and among thoſe tribes which ſeparated at the greateſt diſtance

ſtance, and in the ſmalleſt numbers, from the more improved ſocieties of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this ſituation a particular people were ſelected by God himſelf, to be the depoſitories of his laws and worſhip; but the reſt of mankind were left to form hypotheſes upon theſe ſubjects, which were more or leſs perfect according to an infinity of circumſtances, which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The moſt common religion of antiquity, that which prevailed the longeſt, and extended the wideſt, was Polytheiſm, or the doctrine of a plurality of Gods. The rage of ſyſtem, the ambition of reducing all the phænomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occaſioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this ſpecies of worſhip. For without entering into a minute detail, it is impoſſible to give an adequate idea of the ſubject; and what is ſaid upon it in general, muſt always be liable to a great many exceptions.

One thing however may be obſerved, that the polytheiſm of the antients ſeems neither to have been the fruit of philoſophical ſpeculations, nor of disfigured traditions, concerning the nature of the divinity. It ſeems to have ariſen during the rudeſt ages of ſociety, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and paſſion. It was built therefore ſolely upon ſentiment; as each tribe of men had their heroes, ſo likewiſe they had their gods. Thoſe heroes who led them forth to the combat, who preſided in their councils, whoſe image was engraved on their fancy, whoſe exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an exiſtence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendſhip, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot eaſily conceive; but the power of imagination over the ſenſes is what all men have in ſome degree experienced. Combine theſe two cauſes, and it will not appear ſtrange, that the image of departing heroes ſhould have been ſeen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the ſame functions which they performed when alive. An appearance ſo unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil ſpirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity, and the teſtimony of thoſe who had ſeen it, ſupported by the extreme credulity and romantic caſt of thoſe who had not, gained an univerſal aſſent among all the members of their ſociety. A ſmall degree of reflection however would be ſufficient to convince them, that as their own heroes exiſted after death, it might likewiſe be the caſe of thoſe of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be eſtabliſhed, the propitious and the hoſtile; the gods who were to be loved, and thoſe who were to be feared. But time which wears off the impreſſions of tradition, the frequent invaſions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, deſolated or tranſplanted, made them loſe the names, and confound the characters of thoſe two orders of divinities, and form various ſyſtems of religion, which, tho' warped by a thouſand particular circumſtances, give no ſmall indications of their firſt texture and original materials. For in general the gods of the antients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were ſubject to all the paſſions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many inſtances diſcovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the ſame ſubſtances with men; they lived on nectar and ambroſia;

ſia; they had a particular pleaſure in ſmelling the ſteam of the ſacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worſhipped, naturally reſulted from their character.

It muſt be obſerved, however, that the religion of the antients was not much connected either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical ſocieties, whoſe principles do not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, alſo had theirs; and there was room enough in the univerſe for both to live together in good fellowſhip, without interfering or joſtling with one another.

The introduction of Chriſtianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, by explaining the ſervice he required of men, produced a total alteration on their religious ſentiments and belief. But this is not the place for handling this ſublime ſubject. It is ſufficient to obſerve here, that a religion, which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no aſſociation with falſe gods, muſt either be altogether deſtroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the caſe. Chriſtianity made its way among the civilized part of mankind, by the ſublimity of its doctrines and precepts; and before it was ſupported by the arm of power, ſuſtained itſelf by the voice of wiſdom.

The management of whatever related to the church, being naturally conferred on thoſe who had eſtabliſhed it, firſt occaſioned the elevation of the clergy, and afterwards of the biſhop of Rome, over all the members of the Chriſtian world. It is impoſſible to deſcribe within our narrow limits all the concomitant cauſes, ſome of which were extremely delicate, by which this ſpecies of univerſal monarchy was eſtabliſhed. The biſhops of Rome, by being removed from the controul of the Roman emperors, then reſiding in Conſtantinople; by borrowing, with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites eſtabliſhed among the heathen world, and otherwiſe working on the credulous minds of Barbarians, by whom that empire began to be diſmembered; and by availing themſelves of every circumſtance which fortune threw in their way, ſlowly erected the fabric of their power, at firſt an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The cauſes of its happy diſſolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The moſt efficacious was the rapid improvement of arts, government and commerce, which after many ages of barbarity, made its way into Europe. The ſcandalous lives of thoſe who called themſelves the miniſters of Jeſus Chriſt, their ignorance and tyranny, the deſire natural to ſovereigns of delivering themſelves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects, the immenſe wealth which had been diverted to the ſervice of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conſpired with the ardor of the firſt reformers, and haſtened the progreſs of reformation. The abſurd mummeries eſtabliſhed by the Romiſh clergy in order to elevate their power, and augment their riches, were happily turned into ridicule by men of letters, who, on that account, deſerve to be held in everlaſting eſteem, as they contributed, in a very eminent degree, to that aſtoniſhing event, ſo favourable to the civil as well as to the religious liberties of mankind.

We ſhall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with Europe.

F64



T. Kitchin Sculp.


40
50
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Longit: East from London.
T GREENLAND
Cherry I.
NOVA ZEMBLA
Staro
Jemiza R.
North Cape
Hardhuse
Waygats Str.
Candinos I.
Bresowa
Samaros
Narin
Kola
Tokena
Kandalax
Golotina
Tarsa
White Sea
Archangel
Pzorskoi
Kargapol
Onega Lake
Totma
Kangorod
Solikamskoy
Tobol
Tara
Vlaborg
Kielmi
Dwina R.
Ustjug
Iris R.
Demian
Belozero
Wologda
Kama R.
Niesud
Utko
Kama
Peterſburg
Jeraslaw
Dorpat
Pereslaf
Wolga R.
Kasan
Riga
Loval R.
Twer
Moſcow
Samara
Smolensko
Saratof
Jailskigorod
Vilna
Minsk
Glucow
Seeſsk
Woronitz
Caritza
Brodnica
Lublin
Panchin
Don R.
Krasnoyar
Astrakan
CASPIAN SEA
Lemburg
Kamunick
Pultowa
Asof
Terki
Jazy
Bender
Belgorod
Cassa
Teflis
Derbent
Danube R.
BLACK SEA
Trebisond
Erivan
Sophia
Amasia
Arzerum
Adrianople
Constantinopl
Bursa
Taurus
Dardanells
Kara R.
Kutayeh
Kaysaria
Diyarbekr
Ispahan
Smyrna
Satalia
Aleppo
Baghdad
Tripoli
Cyprus
Euphrates R.
Candia
Jerusalem
Baſsora
Persian Gulf
30
40
50
60
Hours East from London.

EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the leaſt extenſive quarter of the globe, is in many reſpects that which moſt deſerves our attention. It is in Europe that the human mind has made the greateſt progreſs towards its improvement; and where the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the ſciences both military and civil, have been carried to the greateſt height and perfection. If we except the earlieſt ages of the world, it is in Europe we find the greateſt variety of character, government and manners, and from whence we draw the greateſt number of facts and memorials either for our entertainment or inſtruction.

Geography diſcovers to us two circumſtances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a conſiderable tendency in giving it the ſuperiority over the reſt of the world. Firſt, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and ſecondly, the great variety of its ſurface. The effect of a modern climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immenſe number of mountains, rivers, ſeas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from one another, is likewiſe extremely commodious for its inhabitants. Theſe natural boundaries check the progreſs of conqueſt or deſpotiſm, which has always been ſo rapid in the extenſive plains of Africa and the Eaſt: the ſeas and rivers facilitate the intercourſe and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human induſtry and invention, than the natural unsolicited luxuriancy of more fertile ſoils.

There is no part of Europe ſo diverſified in its ſurface, ſo interrupted by natural boundaries or diviſions, as Greece; we have ſeen that it was in Greece the human mind began to know and to avail itſelf of its ſtrength, and that many of the arts ſubſervient to utility or pleaſure, were invented, or at leaſt greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itſelf is with regard to the reſt of the globe. The analogy may even be carried further, and it is worth while to attend to it. As antient Greece (for we do not ſpeak of Greece, at preſent under the unnatural tyranny of Barbarians) was diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt of Europe, for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitution, ſo has Europe in general been remarkable for ſmaller deviations, at leaſt from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though moſt of the European governments are monarchical, we may diſcover, on the examination, that there are a thouſand little ſprings, which check the force, and ſoften the rigour of monarchy in Europe, which do not exiſt any where elſe. In proportion to the number and force of theſe checks, the monarchies of Europe, ſuch as Ruſſia, France, Spain and Denmark, differ from one another. Beſides monarchies, in which one man bears the chief ſway, there are in Europe, ariſtocracies or governments of the nobles, and democracies or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, and ſome ſtates of Italy and Switzerland, afford examples of the latter. There are likewiſe mixed governments, which cannot be aſſigned to any one claſs. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the moſt ſingular inſtance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments in Europe, are compoſed only of two of the ſimple forms, ſuch as Poland, Sweden, ſeve-

ral ſtates of Italy, &c. all which ſhall be explained at length in their proper places.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by perſons of different educations and paſſions, that religion is divided into a number of different ſects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1ſt, The Greek church; 2d, Popery; and 3d, Proteſtantiſm: which laſt is again divided into Lutheraniſm, and Calviniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the two diſtinguiſhed reformers of the 16th century.

The languages of Europe are derived from the ſix following. The Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between the 10th degree weſt, and the 65th degree eaſt long. from London; and between the 36th and 72d degree of north lat. It is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt, by Aſia; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt, by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America; being 3000 miles long, and 2500 broad. It contains the following kingdoms and ſtates.

	Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief City.	Diſt. & Bearing from London	Diff. of Time from London.	Religions.
					Miles.	H. M.	
British Empire.	England	360	300	London	* * *	* * *	Lutherans
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh	400 N.	0 12 aft.	Calviniſts
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin	270 N. W.	0 26 aft.	Luth. Cal. and
	Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans
	Ruſſia	1500	1100	Peterſburg	1140 N. E.	2 4 bef	Greek Church
	Poland	700	680	Warſaw	760 E.	1 24 bef.	Pap. Luth. &
	K. of Pru. Domin.	uncertain		Berlin	540 E.	0 59 bef.	Luth. & Cal.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	600 E.	1 5 bef.	Pap. Luth. &
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600 E.	1 4 bef.	Papiſts
Netherlands.	Holland	150	100	Amſterdam	180 E.	0 18 bef.	Calviniſts
	Flanders	200	200	Bruſſels	180 S. E.	0 16 bef.	Papiſts
	France	600	500	Paris	200 S. E.	0 9 bef.	Papiſts
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	Papiſts
	Portugal	300	100	Liſbon	850 S. W.	0 38 aft.	Papiſts
	Switzerland	260	100	Bern	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calvin. & Pa
Italy.	Several ſmall ſtates	Piedmont, Monterrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuſcany, Turin, Caſal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence					
	Popedom	240	120	Rome	820 S. E.	0 52 bef.	Papiſts
	Naples	280	120	Naples	870 S. E.	1 0 bef.	Papiſts
	Hungary	300	200	Buda	780 S. E.	1 17 bef.	Papiſts
Turkey in Europe.	Danubian Provinces	600	420	Conſtantinople	1320 S. E.	1 58 bef.	Mahometans, Greek Church
	Lit. Tartary	380	240	Caffa	1500 E.	2 24 bef.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	1360 S. E.	1 37 bef.	

Exclusive of the British isles, mentioned above, Europe contains the following principal islands:

Iceland, in the Northern Seas, subject to Denmark.

IN THE BALTIC SEA.

1. { Zeeland, Funen, Alsen, Femeren, Laland, Falster, Mona, Bornholm, } subject to Denmark.
2. Gothland, Aland, Rugen, — subject to Sweden.
3. Osel, Dagho, — — subject to Russia.
4. Usedom, Wollin, — — subject to Prussia.

IN THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

1. Ivica, subject to Spain.
2. Majorca, ditto.
3. Minorca, subject to Great Britain.
4. Corsica, formerly subject to Genoa, now to France.
5. Sardinia, subject to the king of Sardinia.
6. Sicily, subject to the king of Naples.
7. Archipelago islands, subject to Turkey, with the island of Candia.

IN THE ADRIATIC AND IONIAN SEA.

1. Liesiena. 2. Corfu. 3. Cephalonia. 4. Zant, — — } subject to Venice.
5. Leucadia, subject to the Turks.

DENMARK.

I Shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Danish majesty's dominions with the most northerly situations, and divide them into four parts: 1st, East and West Greenland, Iceland, and the Faro Isles; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and 4th, his German territories.

The dimensions of these countries may be seen in the following table.

	Denmark.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities:	
	Jutland,	9,600	155	98	Wyburg,	
	Sleswick,	2,115	70	63	Sleswick,	
Islands at the entrance of the Baltic sea.	Zealand,	1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN,	N. Lat. 55—41 E. Lon. 12—50
	Funen,	768	38	32	Odensee,	
	Falster and Laland,	220	27	12	Nikoping, Naxkaw,	
	Femeren,	50	13	8	Borge,	
	Alsen,	54	15	6	Sonderborge,	
	Mona,	39	14	5	Stege,	
	Bornholm,	160	20	12	Rottomby,	
the North seas,	Iceland I.	46,000	435	185	Skalholt,	
	Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen,	
	Danish Lapland,	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys,	
estphalia,	Oldenburg,	1260	62	32	Oldenburg,	
wer Saxony,	Stromar,	1000	52	32	Gluckstat.	
	Total—	163,001				

The reader may perceive, that in the above table no calculation is made of the dimenſions of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; becauſe, in fact, they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly; we ſhall, however, proceed to give the lateſt accounts of them, and from the beſt authorities that have come to our hands.

EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

EAST GREENLAND,

THE moſt northerly part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions; or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 10 and 11 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. Tho' it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was diſcovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby, in 1553; and is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen, from the height and raggedneſs of its rocks. There is a whale-fiſhery, chiefly proſecuted by the Dutch and ſome Britiſh veſſels, on its coaſts. It likewiſe contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice-Bay; but the inland parts are uninhabited.

WEST GREENLAND,

LIES between the meridian of London, and 50 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 73 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the lateſt accounts from the miſſionaries, employed for the converſion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 ſtated inhabitants: Mr. Crantz, however, thinks that the roving ſouthlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great reſemblance between the aſpect, manners, and dreſs of thoſe natives, and the Eſquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the pains which the Daniſh and German miſſionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly ſevere; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the lateſt and beſt account of this country, ſays, that in their longeſt ſummer days it is ſo hot that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their ſummer garments. They have no trade, though they have a moſt improveable fiſhery upon their coaſts; but they employ all the year either in fiſhing or hunting, in which they are very dextrous.

CURIOSITIES.] The taking of Whales in the ſeas of Greenland among the fields of ice that have been increaſing for ages, is one of the greateſt curioſities in nature. Theſe fields, or pieces of ice, are, frequently, more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickneſs; and when they are put in motion by a ſtorm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had 13 ſhips cruſhed to pieces by them in one ſeaſon.

There are ſeveral kinds of Whales in Greenland; ſome white, and others black. The black ſort, the grand bay whale, is in moſt eſteem on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords which turns to oil. His tongue is about eighteen feet long, incloſed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horſe-hair; and on each ſide of his tongue are ſo

pieces of this whalebone. As to the bones of his body, they are as hard as an ox's bones, and of no uſe. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is uſually between 60 and 80 feet long; very thick about the head, but grows leſs from thence to the tail.

When the ſeamen ſee a whale ſpout, the word is immediately given, *fall, fall,* when every one haſtens from the ſhip to his boat; ſix or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats uſually belong to one ſhip.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart) and the monſter finding himſelf wounded, runs ſwiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him, if they did not give him line faſt enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the ſide of it, one wets it conſtantly with a mop. After the whale has run ſome hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes ſuch a terrible noiſe with his ſpouting, that ſome have compared it to the firing of cannon. So ſoon he appears on the ſurface of the water, ſome of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a ſecond time they pierce him with ſpears in the vital parts, till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins, till the ſea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him ſome leagues, till he has loſt his ſtrength; and when he is dying, he turns himſelf upon his back, and is drawn on ſhore, or to the ſhip, if they be at a diſtance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on ſhore; otherwiſe they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home; but nothing can ſmell ſtronger than theſe ſhips do. Every fiſh is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3 l. or 4 l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim this country of Eaſt Greenland, where theſe whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopolized this fiſhery.

ICELAND,

LIES between 63 and 68 deg. N. lat. and between 10 and 26 deg. W. long. from the meridian of London; extending from eaſt to weſt about 720 miles.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants are ſuppoſed to be about 80,000; tho' it is thought that they were formerly far more numerous, till the country was depopulated by the ſmall-pox, and peſtilential diſeaſes. They are ſubject to the crown of Denmark, and conform to the religion and laws of Norway. His Daniſh majeſty names their governor, called Staffs-amptmaud; but he appoints a deputy governor, called Amptmaud, who reſides in Iceland, at the king's palace of Reſſeſted, on a ſalary of 400 rix-dollars; and he has magiſtrates under him, both in civil and ſpiritual caſes. The people are naturally hardy, honeſt, and induſtrious. They amuſe themſelves with cheſs and ſinging. In ſome things they differ little from the Danes and Norwegians; though they have many cuſtoms peculiar to themſelves.

TRADE.] The commerce of this iſland is monopolized by a Daniſh company. Its exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarſe woollen cloth, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox-furs of various colours, eider-down,

and feathers. Their imports conſiſt of timber, fiſhing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, and a little ſilk; excluſive of ſome neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for the more wealthy.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Daniſh majeſty's protection: and the revenue he draws from the country, amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

THE FARO ISLANDS.

SO called from their lying in a cluſter, and the inhabitants ferrying from one iſland to another. They are about twenty-four in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. W. long. from London. The ſpace of this cluſter extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, to the weſtward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the ſouth-eaſt, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-weſt. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 3000 or 4000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

NORWAY.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] THE natural ſignification of Norway is, the Northern-way. It is bounded on the ſouth by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the weſt and north, by the northern ocean; and on the eaſt, it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield, Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may conſult the table of dimenſions in Denmark for its extent; but it is a country ſo little known to the reſt of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimenſions with preciſion.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its expoſiture towards the ſea. At Bergen, the winter is moderate, and the ſea is practicable. The eaſtern parts of Norway are commonly covered with ſnow; and the cold generally ſets in about the middle of October, with intenſe ſeverity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that while being frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, periſhed in the ſnow, on the mountains which ſeparate Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different poſtures. But even froſt and ſnow have their conveniencies, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northerly parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is ſo intenſe, that they are but little known. At Bergen, the longeſt day conſiſts of about nineteen hours, and the ſhorteſt about ſix. In ſummer the inhabitants can read and write at midnight, by the light of the ſky; and in the moſt northerly parts, about midſummer, the ſun is continually in view. In thoſe parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon, for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the ſun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithſtanding, has been ſo kind to the Norwegians, that in the midſt of the darkneſs, the ſky is ſo ſerene, and the moon and the aurora borealis ſo bright, that they can carry on their fiſhery, and work at their ſeveral trades in open air.

The air is ſo pure in ſome of the inland parts, that the inhabitants live ſo long as to be tired of life; and cauſe themſelves to be tranſported

to a leſs ſalubrious air. Sudden thaws, and ſnow-falls, have, however, ſometimes dreadful effects, and deſtroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the moſt mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains running from ſouth to north: to paſs that of Hardanger, a man muſt travel about ſeventy Engliſh miles; and to paſs others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is counted the higheſt mountain, perhaps, in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which interſect thoſe dreadful precipices, and are paſſable only by ſlight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence of providing, at different ſtages, houſes accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vaſt chain, other immenſe mountains preſent themſelves all over Norway; ſome of them with reſervoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a moſt ſurprizing landſcape. The activity of the natives, in recovering their ſheep and goats, when penned up, through a falſe ſtep, in one of thoſe rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himſelf to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, ſitting on a croſs ſtick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature ſtands, he faſtens it to the ſame cord, and it is drawn up with himſelf. The caverns that are to be met with in thoſe mountains, are more wonderful than thoſe, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though leſs liable to obſervation. One of them, called Dolſteen, was, in 1750, viſited by two clergymen; who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the ſea daſhing over their heads; that the paſſage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted: that they deſcended a flight of natural ſtairs; but when they arrived at another, they durſt not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they conſumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its foreſts, which furniſh foreigners with maſts, beams, planks, and boards; and ſerve beſide for all domeſtic uſes; particularly the conſtruction of houſes, bridges, ſhips, and for charcoal to the founderies. The chief timber growing here are fir and pine, elm, aſh, yew, benreed, (a very curious wood) birch, beech, oak, eel, or alder, juniper, the aſpin-tree, the comel, or ſloe-tree, haſel, elder, and even ebony; (under the mountains of Kolen) lyme and willows. The ſums which Norway receives for timber, are very conſiderable; but the induſtry of the inhabitants is greatly aſſiſted by the courſe of their rivers, and the ſituation of their lakes; which affords them not only the conveniency already mentioned, of floating down their timber, but that of erecting ſaw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all ſawed timber belongs to his Daniſh majeſty, and forms no inconſiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of ſtones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or aſbeſtos, which when its delicate fibres are wove into cloth, are cleaned by the fire, is likewiſe found here: as are cryſtals, granates, amethyſts, agate, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtones. Gold found in Norway, has been coined into ducats. His Daniſh majeſty is now working, to great advantage, a ſilver mine at Koningſberg; other ſilver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many ſilver maſſes that have been diſcovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be ſeen at the Royal Mu-

ſeum at Copenhagen. The lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper-mines at Roraas, is thought to be the richeſt in Europe. Norway likewiſe produces quickſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, and coal-mines; vitriol, allum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and freſh-water lakes in this country, are well ſtocked with fiſh: and navigable for veſſels of conſiderable burden. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance attending the lakes is, that ſome of them contain floating iſlands, formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and ſhrubs: and though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. So late as the year 1702, the noble family ſeat of Borge, near Fredericſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs 100 fathom in depth; and its ſite was inſtantly filled with a piece of water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which fourteen people and two hundred head of cattle periſhed, was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, FOWLS AND FISHES. } All the animals that are natives of Denmark, are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hares, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the martin and the beaver. The elk is a tall aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and, in the winter, ſocial; and their fleſh taſtes like veniſon. The rein-deer is a ſpecies of ſtag; but we ſhall have occaſion to mention him more particularly afterwards. The hares are ſmall; and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are in common with the reſt of their ſpecies in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary ſpecimens of their ſagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs; and ſome prefer bear hams to thoſe of Weſtphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are ſhy even of a cow or a goat, unleſs impelled by hunger: the natives are dextrous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſmaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat-kind, and have claws like tygers; they dig under ground, and often undermine ſheepfolds, where they make dreadful havock. The ſkin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable: as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewiſe found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs aſhore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwiſe called the erven, or vielfras, reſembles a turn-ſpit dog; with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is ſo precious, that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve the ſkin unhurt: he is bold, and ſo ravenous, that it is ſaid he will devour a carcaſe larger than himſelf, and unburthens his ſtomach by ſqueezing himſelf between two cloſe-ſtanding trees: when taken, he has been even known to eat ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its ſhyneſs and cleanlineſs; and few of our readers need to be told, that their fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown foreſt cat, only

only its head and ſnout are ſharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. I ſhall have occaſion to mention the beaver in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The alks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noiſe of their wings reſembles a ſtorm; their ſize is the bigneſs of a large duck: they are an aquatic fowl, and their fleſh is much eſteemed. No fewer than thirty different kinds of thruſhes reſide in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and ſeveral ſorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood, is of a black or dark-grey colour, his eye reſembling that of a pheaſant; and he is ſaid to be the largeſt of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the ſea; the former is ſo ſtrong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the ſea, or fiſh-eagle, is larger than the other; he ſubſiſts on aquatic food; and ſometimes darts on large fiſhes with ſuch force, that being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature ſeems to have adapted theſe aerial inhabitants for the coaſt of Norway; and induſtry has produced a ſpecies of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them ſerviceable to the human race: theſe are the bird-men, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the ſteepeſt rocks, and bringing away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are ſometimes parboiled in vinegar; the fleſh is eaten by the peaſants, who generally reliſh it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers in the northern diſtricts, are trained up to be aſſiſtants to thoſe bird-men in ſeizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and ſeas are aſtoniſhingly fruitful in all fiſh that are found on the ſea-coaſts of Europe, which need not here to be enumerated. Some fiſhes in thoſe ſeas, however, have their peculiarities. The haac-mœren, is a ſpecies of ſhark ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three caſks of train-oil. The tuello-flynder is an exceſſive large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who had fallen over-board, to keep him from riſing. The ſeaſon for herring fiſhing is announced to the fiſhermen by the ſpouting of water from the whales (of which ſeven different ſpecies are mentioned) in following the herring ſhoals. The large whale reſembles a cod, with ſmall eyes, a dark marbled ſkin, and white belly: they ſpout out the water, which they take in by inſpiration, thro' two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land-animals, ſtanding upright in the ſea. A young whale, when firſt produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female ſometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours ſuch an incredible number of ſmall fiſh, that his belly is often ready to burſt; in which caſe he makes a moſt tremendous noiſe from pain. The ſmaller fiſh have their revenge; ſome of them faſten on his back, and inceſſantly beat him; others, with ſharp horns, or rather bones on their beaks, ſwim under his belly, and ſometimes rip it up; ſome are provided with long ſharp teeth, and tear his fleſh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war againſt him when he comes near the ſurface of the water; and he has been known to be ſo tortured, that he has beat himſelf to death on the rocks. The coaſts of Norway may be ſaid to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the ſhoals that come from under the ice at the north-pole; and about the latitude of Iceland divide themſelves into three bodies: one of theſe ſupply the Weſtern Iſles and coaſts of Scotland, another directs its courſe round

round the eaſtern part of Great-Britain down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torſk-fiſhes, follow them, and feed upon their ſpawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in fifty or ſixty fathoms water: theſe, eſpecially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and ſold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fiſhing on the coaſt of Norway. The ſea-devil is about ſix feet in length, and is ſo called from its monſtrous appearance and voracity. The ſea-ſcorpion is likewiſe of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is ſaid to be poiſonous.

The moſt ſeemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning ſea-monſters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian ſeas; and the ſea-ſnake, or ſerpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was ſhot by a maſter of a ſhip; its head reſembled that of a horſe; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes, a white mane hanging from its neck: it floated on the ſurface of the water, and held its head at leaſt two feet out of the ſea: between the head and neck were ſeven or eight folds, which were very thick: and the length of this ſnake was more than a hundred yards, ſome ſay fathoms. They have a remarkable averſion to the ſmell of caſtor; for which reaſon, ſhip, boat, and bark maſters, provide themſelves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overſet; the ſerpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquiſite. The particularities recounted of this animal would be incredible, were they not atteſted upon oath. Egede (a very creditable author) ſays, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea-monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-maſt of the ſhip; that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale; that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales; the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. The body of this monſter is ſaid to be as thick as a hogſhead; his ſkin is variegated like a tortoiſe ſhell; and his excrement, which floats upon the ſurface of the water, is corroſive, and bliſters the hands of the ſeamen if they handle it.

I ſhould be under great difficulty in mentioning the kraken, or korven, were not its exiſtence proved ſo ſtrongly, as ſeem to put it out of all doubt. Its bulk is ſaid to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, it reſembles a number of ſmall iſlands and ſand-banks, on which fiſhes diſport themſelves, and ſeaweeds grow: upon a farther emergement, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and ſize of a moderate maſt, appear; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, conſiſting of ſmall fiſhes. When he ſinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous ſwell of the ſea ſucceeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken periſhed among the rocks and cliffs of the pariſh of Alſtahong; and his death was attended by ſuch a ſtench, that the channel where it died was impaſſable. Without entering into any romantic theories, we may ſafely ſay, that the exiſtence of this fiſh being proved, accounts for many of thoſe phænomena of floating iſlands, and tranſitory appearances in the ſea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of ſuch an animal.

The

The mermen and mer-women, hold their reſidence in the Norwegian ſeas; but I cannot give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The merman is about eight ſpans long, and, undoubtedly, has as much reſemblance as an ape has to the human ſpecies; a high forehead, little eyes, a flat noſe, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characteriſe its head; its arms are ſhort, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members reſembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane: the parts of generation indicate their ſexes; though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like thoſe of fiſhes. The females have breaſts, at which they ſuckle their young ones. It would far exceed the bounds allotted to this article, to follow the Norwegian adventurers through all the different deſcriptions which they have given us of their fiſhes: but they are ſo well authenticated, that I make no doubt, a new and very ſurprizing theory of aquatic animals may in time be formed.

CURIOSITIES.] Thoſe of Norway are only natural. On the coaſt, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators, the naval of the ſea, and by ſome Maleſtrom, or Moſkoeſtrom. The iſland Moſkoe, from whence this ſtream derives its name, lies between the mountain Hefleggen in Lofoden, and the iſland Ver, which are about one league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden, it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moſkoe and Ver, it is ſo ſhallow, as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip. When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moſkoe with a boiſterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the ſea with a violence and noiſe, unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard at the diſtance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth and extent; ſo violent, that if a ſhip comes near it, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the whirl and there diſappears; being abſorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks; and juſt at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter of an hour, it riſes again in ſcattered fragments, ſcarcely to be known for the parts of a ſhip. When it is agitated by a ſtorm, it has reached veſſels at the diſtance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themſelves in perfect ſecurity. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a ſituation of more horror, than of being thus driven forward by the ſudden violence of an impetuous torrent, to the vortex of a whirlpool, of which the noiſe and turbulence ſtill increaſing as it is approached, are an earneſt of quick and inevitable deſtruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of deſpair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impoſſible; and ſee before them the dreadful abyſs, in which they are about to be plunged and daſhed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals which have come too near the vortex, have expreſſed the utmoſt terror, when they find the ſtream irreſiſtible. Whales are frequently carried away, and the moment they feel the force of the water, they ſtruggle againſt it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to ſwim to the iſland to prey upon the ſheep.

It is the opinion of Kircher, that the Maleſtrom is a ſea vortex, which attracts the flood under the ſhore of Norway, and diſcharges it again in the gulph of Bothnia; but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the

the return of the ſhattered fragments of whatever happens to be ſucked down by it. The large ſtems of firs and pines riſe again ſo ſhivered and ſplintered, that the pieces look as if covered with briſtles. The whole phænomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flood, occaſioned by the contraction of the ſtream in its courſe between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. The Norwegians are a middling kind of people, between the ſimplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more poliſhed manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have biſhops, as thoſe of Denmark, without temporal juriſdiction. Their viceroy, like his maſter, is abſolute; but we may eaſily conceive that he makes no barbarous uſe of his power, becauſe we know of few or no repreſentations or inſurrections of the people againſt it.

The Norwegians in general, are ſtrong, robuſt, and brave; but quick in reſenting real or ſuppoſed injuries. The women are handſome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms, both of living, and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly reſembling the Saxon anceſtors of the preſent Engliſh. Every inhabitant is an artizan, and ſupplies his family in all its neceſſaries with his own manufactures; ſo that in Norway, there are few, by profeſſion, who are hatters, ſhoe-makers, taylors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, ſmiths, and joiners. The loweſt Norwegian peaſant is an artiſt and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oatmeal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flower; and they are reduced to very extraordinary ſhifts for ſupplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians, form a proper ſubject of contemplation even to a philoſopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may ſay is furniſhed with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor dreading penury: this middle ſtate prolongs their ages ſurprizingly. Though their dreſs is accommodated to their climate, yet, by cuſtom, inſtead of guarding againſt the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expoſe themſelves to cold, without any coverture upon their breaſts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age, is not accounted paſt his labour: and in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Fredericſhall, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain veſtiges of their former paganiſm: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places the mourners aſk the dead perſon why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other ſuch queſtions; frequently kneeling down and aſking forgiveneſs, if ever they had offended the deceaſed.

CITIES.] The principal cities of Norway are Bergen, the capital; Chriſtiana, Chriſtianſand and Kongſberg, famous for the ſilver mines in its neighbourhood; Fredericſhall, where Charles XII. of Sweden was ſhot in the trenches; Frederickſtadt, and Drontheim.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what ſhall be obſerved in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, moſt of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rixdollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the beſt calculations, Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers, for

for the uſe of their king, without hurting either trade or agriculture. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to about 200,000 l. and till his preſent majeſty's acceſſion, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his majeſty's income, by the ſubſidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We muſt refer to Denmark likewiſe for this head. The antient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we are to believe their hiſtories, they were no ſtrangers to America long before it was diſcovered by Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſcents, and ſome ſettlements, which are generally confounded with thoſe of the Danes. From their being the moſt turbulent, they are become now the moſt loyal ſubjects in Europe; which we can eaſily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a ſeparate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their hiſtory, as well as intereſts, are the ſame with that of Denmark.

DENMARK PROPER.

EXTENT AND SITUATION, INCLUDING THE ISLES.

Length 240, Breadth 180, between 8 and 13 East longitude, 54 and 58 North latitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac ſea, and from Sweden on the eaſt by the Sound; on the ſouth by Germany and the Baltic; and the German ſea divides it from Great Britain on the weſt.

Denmark Proper is divided into two parts: the peninſula of Jutland; and the iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic, mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that tho' all theſe together conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is ſeparately called by that name.

MOUNTAINS, FORESTS, LAKES, RIVERS, CLIMATE, AND SOIL.] Jutland conſiſts chiefly of barren mountains, but ſome corn grows in the vallies. The face of the country preſents a number of large foreſts; but there is ſcarcely in Denmark a river navigable to a ſhip of burden. Some lakes, which contain delicious fiſhes, are found in the inland parts of the country. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the ſurrounding ſea, than it is in many more ſouthern parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark, where winter, and ſultry heats during June, July, and Auguſt, poſſeſs the air. The ſoil is more recommendable for its paſturage, than for its common vegetable productions. The vallies are in general fruitful; but the ſoil is ſandy in the iſlands, and requires plentiful ſhowers to raiſe even a crop of hay.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horſes, both for the ſaddle and carriage; and numbers of black cattle, ſheep, and hogs, beſides game; and its ſea-coaſts are generally well ſupplied with fiſh.

POPULATION, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] By an actual numeration, made in 1759, of his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects, in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt, in Weſtphalia; they amounted to 2,444,000 ſouls, excluſive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders.

However

However disproportioned this number may seem, to the extent of his Danish majesty's dominions, yet, every thing considered, it is far greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated state of his possessions; and it is more than sufficient for all the purposes of commerce. As population generally keeps pace with plenty, especially in northern countries, there can be no doubt that the number of his Danish majesty's subjects, in a few years, will be vastly encreased, by the improvements introduced among them in agriculture and other arts.

The noble disposition of his Danish majesty for improving his country, renders it very difficult to speak with any certainty concerning the manners and customs, the police and manufactures of his dominions. Commerce, undoubtedly, is on the reviving hand in Denmark; and since the kings there have been rendered absolute, particular titles of honour, such as those of count and baron, have been introduced into the kingdom; but the adventuring, warlike spirit, seems to be lost among their nobility, whose civil powers are indeed annihilated, but they are tyrants over their inferiors and tenants, who, as to property, are still in a state of vassalage. It is more than probable, however, that his present Danish majesty will, in that and all other respects, give a new face to the police of his country; and he has already taken some effectual measures for that purpose, by meliorating the state of the peasants; the only spur to industry.

The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who now begin to visit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION.] The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into six dioceses; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland: these dioceses are governed by bishops, whose profession is entirely to superintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a distinction of their ecclesiastical dress, for they have neither cathedrals nor ecclesiastical courts, nor the smallest concern with civil affairs: their morals, however, are so good, that they are revered by the people.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are spoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the English, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a necessary part of education. A company of English comedians occasionally visit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement.

The university of Copenhagen is said now to be encouraged by the government; but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines; not to mention that the Danes begin now to make some promising attempts in history, poetry and the drama.

ANTIQUITIES, CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper, affords fewer of these than the other parts of his Danish majesty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a numerous collection of both. Besides artificial skeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Danish artist who was blind, here are to be seen two famous antique drinking vessels; the one of gold, the other of silver, and both in the form of a hunting horn: that of gold seems to be of pagan manufacture; and from the raised hieroglyphical figures on its outside, it probably was made use of in religious ceremonies:

it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and a half; and was found in the dioceſe of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which they ſay, was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a Ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion, that this veſſel was made by order of Chriſtiern I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. I ſhall juſt mention in this place, that ſeveral veſſels of different metals, and the ſame form, have been found in the north of England, and are probably of Daniſh original. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments; ſome Indian curioſities, and a ſet of medals antient and modern. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen; which is ſo contrived, that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flenſburg and Sleſwic, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, and the anceſtors of the bulk of the modern Engliſh.

The greateſt rarities in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers; I mean thoſe antient inſcriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and hiſtorians; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, were known. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood by the learned themſelves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be hiſtorical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo Grammaticus, has exhibited ſpecimens of ſeveral of thoſe inſcriptions.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is ſituated on the fine iſland of Zealand, makes a magnificent appearance at a diſtance. It is very ſtrong, and defended by four royal caſtles or forts. It contains ten pariſh churches, beſides nine others, belonging to Calviniſts and other perſuaſions, and ſome hoſpitals. Copenhagen is adorned by ſome public and private palaces, as they are called. Its ſtreets are 186 in number, and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houſes in the principal ſtreets are built of brick, and thoſe in their lanes chiefly of timber. Its univerſity has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, which admits indeed of only one ſhip to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the ſtreets have canals, and quays for ſhips to lie cloſe to the houſes; and its naval arſenal is ſaid far to exceed that of Venice.

The fineſt palace belonging to his Daniſh majeſty, lies about 20 Engliſh miles from Copenhagen, and is called Fredericſburg. It is a moſt magnificent houſe, and built in the modern taſte; but ill contrived, and worſe ſituated; being in a moiſt unhealthy ſoil. While the kings of Denmark reſide, as they often do, at this palace, they lay aſide great part of their ſtate, and mingle with their ſubjects in their diverſions both of the court and the field.

Jagerſburg, is a park which contains a royal country ſeat, called the Hermitage; which is remarkable for the diſpoſition of its apartments, and the quaintneſs of its furniture; particularly a machine, which conveys the diſhes to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory. The chief eccleſiaſtical building in Denmark, is the cathedral of Roſchild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monu-

ments

ments ſtill remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered paſſage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

COMMERCE.] I ſhall, under this head, include the commodities and manufactures imported to and exported from the country. Fir, and other timber, black cattle, horſes, butter, ſtock-fiſh, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch and iron, are the natural products of the Daniſh dominions; and conſequently are ranked under the head of exports. To theſe we may add furrs; but the exportation of oats is forbid. The imports are, ſalt, wine, brandy and ſilk, from France, Portugal and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourſe with England, from whence they import broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England. But nothing ſhews the commercial ſpirit of the Danes in a ſtronger light, than their eſtabliſhments in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies.

In 1712, Chriſtiern IV. of Denmark, eſtabliſhed an Eaſt-India company at Copenhagen; and, ſoon after, four ſhips ſailed from thence to the Eaſt-Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Daniſh majeſty by James I. of England, who married a princeſs of Denmark; and in 1617 they built and fortified a caſtle and town at Tranquebar, on the coaſt of Coromandel. The ſecurity which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort, invited numbers of them to ſettle here; ſo that the Daniſh Eaſt-India company were ſoon rich enough to pay to their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a ſudden, in 1620, endeavoured to poſſeſs themſelves of the ſpice-trade at Ceylon; but were defeated by the Portugueſe. The truth is, they ſoon embroiled themſelves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous aſſiſtance given them by Mr. Pit, an Engliſh Eaſt-India governor, the ſettlement at Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the rajah of Tanjour. Upon the cloſe of the wars of Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Daniſh Eaſt-India company found themſelves ſo much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcription, for enlarging their antient capital ſtock, and for fitting out ſhips to Tranquebar, Bengal and China. Two years after, his Daniſh majeſty granted a new charter to his Eaſt-India Company, with vaſt privileges; and for ſome time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I ſhall juſt mention, that the Danes likewiſe poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, in the Weſt-Indies; which are free ports, and celebrated for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg, on the coaſt of Guinea; and carry on a conſiderable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT AND LAWS.] The civil conſtitution of Denmark, in its preſent deſpotic ſtate, ariſes out of the ruins of the ariſtocratic powers which the nobility exerciſed over their inferiors with moſt intolerable tyranny. Formerly their kings were elective, and might be depoſed by the convention of eſtates, which included the repreſentatives of the peaſants. The king's royalty gave him pre-eminence in the field and the courts of juſtice, but no revenues were attached to it; and unleſs he had a great eſtate of his own, he was obliged to live like a private nobleman. In proceſs of time, however, the regal dignity became hereditary; or rather, the ſtates tacitly acquieſced in that mode of government, to prevent the horrible ravages which they had experienced from civil wars, and diſputed ſucceſſions. Their kings of the race of Oldenburg, the preſent royal family, though ſome of them were brave and ſpirited princes, did not chuſe to abridge the nobility of their

powers; and a ſeries of unſucceſsful wars rendered the nation in general ſo miſerable, that the publick had not money for paying off the army. The diſpute came to a ſhort queſtion, which was, that the nobles ſhould ſubmit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people then, as uſual, threw their eyes towards the king, for relief and protection from the oppreſſions of the intermediate order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the ſtates, it was propoſed that the nobles ſhould bear their ſhare in the common burden. Upon this, one Otta Craeg put the people in mind that the commons were no more than ſlaves to the lords.

This was the watch-word, which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itſelf. Nanſon, the ſpeaker of the commons, catched hold of the term Slavery, the aſſembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a houſe of their own, where they reſolved to make the king a ſolemn tender of their liberties and ſervices; and formally to eſtabliſh in his family the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. This reſolution was executed the next day. The biſhop of Copenhagen officiated as ſpeaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promiſing them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were ſhut; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, ſubmitted with the beſt grace they could, to confirm what had been done.

It is happy for the Danes, that ever ſince the year 1660, when this great revolution took place, few or no inſtances have happened, of abuſing the deſpotic powers thus veſted in the kings, which are at preſent perhaps more extenſive than thoſe of any crowned head in Europe. On the contrary, the adminiſtration of civil juſtice in Denmark is conſidered by many as a model for other nations; and ſome princes, his Pruſſian majeſty particularly, have actually adopted great part of it. The code of the Daniſh laws, is a quarto volume, drawn up in the language of the country, in ſo plain and perſpicuous a manner, and upon ſuch ſimple principles of juſtice, that the moſt ignorant may learn it; and every man may plead his own cauſe: and no ſuit is to hang in ſuſpence beyond one year and a month. But *the king hath privilege to explain, nay, to alter and change the ſame as he ſhall think good.* In Denmark there are two inferior courts, from which appeals lie to a High Right court in Copenhagen, where the king preſides, aſſiſted by his chief nobility. Judges are puniſhed in caſes of miſbehaviour or corruption. Other tribunals are inſtituted for the affairs of the revenue, army, commerce, admiralty, and criminal matters. In ſhort, it is allowed on all hands, that the civil policy of Denmark, and its executive powers, produce wonderful effects for the ſafety of the people as well as of the government.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL INTERESTS OF DENMARK. Since the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, his court ſeems to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, obſerved a moſt reſpectable neutrality during the late war; but never could get rid of French influence, notwithſtanding his connections with Great-Britain. The ſubſidies he received maintained his army; but his family-diſputes with Ruſſia, concerning Holſtein, and the aſcendency which the French had obtained over the Swedes, not to mention many other matters, did not ſuffer him to act that deciſive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his ſituation; eſpecially about the time the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded. His preſent Daniſh majeſty's plan, ſeems to be that of forming his

dominions into a ſtate of independency, by availing himſelf of their natural advantages. His friendſhip with Great-Britain, and the preſent divided deſpicable condition of the Swedes, together with the pacific diſpoſition of the princes of the empire, leave him at full leiſure to proſecute the great plans he has formed. The improvements his ſubjects have made ſince the reign of Frederick IV. who died in 1730, in manufactures and the mechanical arts, are aſtoniſhing: and the wiſe ſumptuary laws, eſpecially thoſe againſt imports of foreign manufactures, keep immenſe ſums in the kingdom.

With regard to the external intereſts of Denmark, they are certainly beſt ſecured by cultivating a friendſhip with the maritime powers. The preſent condition of her navy, renders her ſecure by ſea from Sweden and Ruſſia, whoſe marine, when united, falls ſhort of that of Denmark; for though the Ruſſians maintain a large number of ſhips, yet they are ſo poorly navigated, that Ruſſia cannot be conſidered as a maritime power. The exports of Denmark enables her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and ſhe is particularly courted by the Mahometan ſtates, on account of her ſhip-building ſtores. His preſent majeſty, like his father and grand-father, makes ſtrong efforts for drawing the trade of Hamburgh towards the favourite town of Altena; but hitherto with little apparent ſucceſs. This rivalſhip, however, never can embroil her with any European power, provided his Daniſh majeſty is ſo wiſe as to make no attempt upon the city of Hamburgh itſelf.

The preſent imperial family of Ruſſia has indeed many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holſtein; but as her poſſeſſions were guaranteed by his Britannic majeſty, there is but ſmall appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by ſo enterpriſing and deſpotic a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repoſſeſs themſelves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark; but of this there is at preſent very ſmall likelihood; and, whatever the arts of France may attempt, the Danes will always look with a jealous eye upon every meaſure taken for aboliſhing the preſent forms of the Swediſh conſtitution. The greateſt danger that can ariſe to Denmark from a foreign power is, when the Baltic ſea (as has happened more than once) is ſo frozen over, as to bear not only men, but heavy artillery; in which caſe the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conqueſt of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] His Daniſh majeſty's revenues have three ſources: the impoſitions he lays upon his own ſubjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demeſne lands, including confiſcations. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds, are moderately taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll-money, raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The reader is to obſerve, that the internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, becauſe they may be abated or raiſed at the king's will. Cuſtoms, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by ſtrangers, ariſe chiefly from foreign ſhips that paſs through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow ſtrait between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. Theſe tolls are in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip and value of the cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Daniſh majeſty's revenue, has more than once thrown

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the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often diſputed by the Engliſh and Dutch; and the Swedes who command the oppoſite ſide of the paſs, for ſome time, refuſed to pay it: but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majeſty, George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the ſame rates as are paid by the ſubjects of Great-Britain and the Netherlands. The toll is paid at Elſenore, a town ſeated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic ſea, and about 18 miles diſtant from Copenhagen. No eſtimate can be made of its produce, nor of the groſs revenue of Denmark; though it is generally thought to amount at preſent to about 700,000 l. a year; a ſum which, in that country, goes far, and maintains a ſplendid court, and powerful armaments both by ſea and land.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The three laſt kings of Denmark, notwithſtanding the degeneracy of their people, in martial affairs, were very reſpectable princes, by the number and diſcipline of their troops, which they have kept up with vaſt care. The preſent army of Denmark conſiſts of 40,000 men, cavalry and infantry; moſt of whom are officered by foreigners. Though this army is burdenſome to the nation, yet it coſts little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peaſantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furniſh them with money. His preſent majeſty ſeems determined to re-eſtabliſh the naval force of his kingdom, and to rank himſelf as a maritime power. It muſt be acknowledged that he has great invitation to ſuch a conduct; his ſubjects in general are excellent ſeamen; Copenhagen has a noble capacious ſea-port; and the preſent naval force of Denmark is ſaid to conſiſt of 30 ſhips of the line.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK. } Theſe are two; that of the Elephant, and that of Daneburg: the former was inſtituted by Chriſtiern I. and is deemed the moſt honourable; its badge is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle, ſet in diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-coloured watered ribbon; worn like the George in England: the number of its members, beſides the ſovereign, are thirty. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is ſaid to be of the higheſt antiquity, conſiſt of a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left ſhoulder; from which depends a ſmall croſs of diamonds, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat, ſurrounded with the motto, *Pietate & juſtitia.*

HISTORY.] We owe the chief hiſtory of Denmark, to a very extraordinary phænomenon; I mean, the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the perſon of Saxo Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was loſt all over other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other hiſtorians of his age, has adopted, and at the ſame time ennobled by his ſtyle, the moſt ridiculous abſurdities of remote antiquity. We can, however, collect enough from him to conclude, that the antient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Iriſh, and other northern nations, had their bards; who recounted the military atchievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtories were written in verſe. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia * or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

* By Scythia may be underſtood all thoſe northern countries of Europe and Aſia, (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Ruſſians and Tartars; ſee the introduction)

Even the name of the first Christian Danish king is uncertain; and those of the people whom they commanded were so blended together, that it is impossible for the reader to conceive a precise idea of the old Scandinavian history. This undoubtedly was owing to the remains of their Scythian customs, particularly that of removing from one country to another: and of several nations or septs joining together in expeditions by sea and land; and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders. Thus, the terms Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiscuously used long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the short revival of literature under that prince, throws very little light upon the Danish history. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers; that so far back as the year of Christ 500, they insulted all the sea-coasts of Europe; that they settled in Ireland, were they built stone houses; and that they became masters of England, and some part of Scotland; both which kingdoms still retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the history of Denmark and that of England, under the Danish princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint resemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themselves the superiority over the English.

In the kingdom of Denmark, very few interesting events preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted that throne; and partly by her address, and partly by hereditary right, she formed the union of Calmar; by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Sweden, Denmark and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly stiled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar fell to nothing; but Norway still continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christiern, count of Oldenburg, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended, and in 1536 the protestant religion was established in Denmark, by that wise and politic prince Christiern III.

Christiern IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was chosen for the head of the protestant league, formed against the house of Austria; but, though brave in his own person, he was in danger of losing his dominions; when he was succeeded in that command by the famous Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Christiern, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his Son Frederic III. consented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, persuaded him to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden; which had almost cost him his crown in 1657. Charles stormed the fortress of Fredericstadt; and in the succeeding winter, he marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprised the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyburg; and marched over the Great Belt, to besiege Copenhagen itself. Cromwell, the English usurper, interposed, and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity, till the peace of Roschild; by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking,

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whose inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued so late as the 13th century to issue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more southern and fertile kingdoms of Europe; hence by Sir William Temple, and other historians, they are termed *the northern Hive, the Mother of nations, the Storehouse of Europe.*

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and Sconia, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim, in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic ſought to elude thoſe ſevere terms; but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more beſieged Copenhagen by ſea and land. The ſteady intrepid conduct of Frederic under theſe misfortunes, endeared him to his ſubjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence, till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swediſh fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic; who ſhewed on every occaſion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raiſe the ſiege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the Engliſh fleet, under Montague, appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to beſiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital; by which the iſland of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the iſland of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not reſtore to Denmark all ſhe had loſt, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, under the moſt imminent dangers, and his attention to the ſafety of his ſubjects, even preferable to his own, indeared him ſo much in their eyes, that they rendered him abſolute, in the manner and for the reaſon I have already mentioned. Frederic was ſucceeded, in 1670, by his ſon, Chriſtiern V. who obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war; which Chriſtiern obſtinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landſcroon; and he had almoſt exhauſted his dominions in his military operations, till he was in a manner abandoned by all his allies, and forced to ſign a treaty on the terms preſcribed by France, in 1679. Chriſtiern, however, did not deſiſt from his military attempts; and at laſt he became the ally and ſubſidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains. Chriſtiern, after a vaſt variety of treating and fighting with the Holſteiners, Hamburghers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was ſucceeded by Frederick IV. who, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions upon Holſtein; and probably muſt have become maſter of that dutchy, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets raiſed the ſiege of Tonningen; while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was no more than ſixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to aſſiſt his brother-in-law, the duke of Holſtein. Charles, probably, would have made himſelf maſter of Copenhagen, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and who afterwards did great ſervice againſt the French.

Notwithſtanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while Charles was an exile at Bender, he made a deſcent upon the Swediſh Pomerania; and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadeſbuſch, who laid his favourite city of Altena in aſhes. Frederic revenged himſelf, by ſeizing great part of the ducal Holſtein, and forcing the Swediſh general, count Steinbock, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the ſucceſſes of Frederic were ſo great, by taking Tonningen and Stralſund,

by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wiſmar, in Pomerania, that his allies began to ſuſpect he was aiming at the ſovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war againſt Denmark, with a moſt embittered ſpirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the ſiege of Fredericſhal, Frederic durſt not refuſe the offer of his Britannic majeſty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in conſequence of which, a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in poſſeſſion of the dutchy of Sleſwic. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having, two years before, ſeen his capital reduced to aſhes, by an accidental fire. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Chriſtiern Frederick, made no other uſe of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects; whom he eaſed of many oppreſſive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction*, Chriſtiern ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor, during the diſpute of the ſucceſſion to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, eſpecially over Hamburgh. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Pruſſia, to aboliſh their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of ſilver marks. He had, two years after, viz. 1738, a diſpute with his Britannic majeſty, about the little lordſhip of Steinhorſt, which had been mortgaged to the latter by the duke of Holſtein Lawenburg, and which Chriſtiern ſaid belonged to him. Some blood was ſpilt during the conteſt; in which Chriſtiern, it is thought, never was in earneſt. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himſelf of his Britannic majeſty's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Chriſtiern a ſubſidy of 70,000 l. ſterling a year, on condition of keeping in readineſs 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. And two years after, he ſeized ſome Dutch ſhips, for trading without his leave, to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Chriſtiern had ſo great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his ſon to be declared ſucceſſor to his then Swediſh majeſty. Some ſteps for that purpoſe were certainly taken: but whatever Chriſtiern's views might have been, the deſign was fruſtrated by the jealouſy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of ſeeing all Scandinavia ſubject to one family. Chriſtiern died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His ſon and ſucceſſor, Frederic V. had, in 1743, married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happineſs of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. For it was by his intervention, that the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded between his royal highneſs the late duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his firſt queen, who was mother to his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttel; and died in 1766. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Chriſtiern VII. and I have already mentioned the many fair proſpects which this prince's reign has opened

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to ſupport the Houſe of Auſtria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male iſſue.

for the good of his people; and can only add, from the ſpecimens he has given the public of his virtues, that he bids fair to be one of the greateſt kings that ever filled the throne of Denmark.*

His Danish Majesty's GERMAN DOMINIONS.

THOSE dominions are mentioned in a ſeparate article chiefly for the ſake of order, as the inhabitants differ little or nothing from other Germans; we ſhall therefore be more general in deſcribing them. The duchy of Sleſwic, which ſome ſay properly belongs to Denmark, is bounded by Jutland, the Baltic, the duchy of Holſtein, and the German ocean. It is well watered, and produces plenty of corn; but the capital city of Sleſwic, which ſtands upon a ſmall arm of the ſea, called the Sley, is much decayed both in trade and population. Gottorp ſtands likewiſe upon the Sley; and was once famous for the magnificent palace of its dukes, and for being the reſidence of the celebrated aſtronomer Tycho Brahe; ſome of his planetary machines and globes ſtill remaining in one of the ſummer-houſes of the palace.

Holſtein belongs partly to Denmark and partly to Ruſſia. The capital of the Daniſh Holſtein is Gluckſtadt, a well-built town and fortreſs, in a marſhy ſituation, on the right of the Elbe; in which is a Lutheran, a Calviniſt, a Romiſh church, and a Jews ſynagogue; and has ſome foreign commerce. Keyl is the capital of the Ducal Holſtein, and is well-built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices.

The famous city of Hamburgh lies, in a geographical ſenſe, in Holſtein, but is now an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holſtein called Stormar: it has the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the moſt flouriſhing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as a well regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 180,000; and it is furniſhed with a vaſt variety of noble edifices, both public and private: it has two ſpacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburgh has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great-Britain, with whom it ſtill carries on a great trade. The Hamburghers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, beſides an artillery company.

In Weſtphalia, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt; they lie on the ſouth ſide of the Weſer; their capitals of the ſame name, are both regularly fortified: and Oldenburg gave a title to the firſt royal anceſtor of his preſent Daniſh majeſty.

LAPLAND.

THE northern ſituation of Lapland, and the diviſion of its property, require, before I proceed farther, that I treat of it under diſtinct head, and in the ſame method that I obſerve in other countries.

* Chriſtiern VII. king of Denmark and Norway, L. L. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; married 1766, to the princeſs Carolina Matilda of England, and has iſſue Frederic, prince royal of Denmark, born 1768.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION AND NAME.] The whole country of Lapland extends, ſo far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71-30 N. lat. to the White-Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the moſt valuable; and ſome parts, in the eaſt, to the Muſcovites. It would be little better than waſting the reader's time, to pretend to point out the ſuppoſed dimenſions of each. That belonging to the Swedes, may be ſeen in the table of dimenſions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts ſay, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that ſeparate Norway from Sweden. The Muſcovite part lies towards the eaſt, between the lake Enarak and the White-Sea. Thoſe parts, notwithſtanding the rudeneſs of the country, are divided into ſmaller diſtricts; generally taking their names from rivers: but, unleſs in the Swediſh part, which is ſubject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be ſaid to be under no regular government. The Swediſh Lapland therefore is the object conſidered by authors in deſcribing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the deſcendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which ſignifies exiles. The reader, from what has been ſaid in the introduction, may eaſily conceive that in Lapland, for ſome months in the ſummer, the ſun never ſets; and during winter, it never riſes: but the inhabitants are ſo well aſſiſted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they never diſcontinue their work through darkneſs.

CLIMATE.] In winter, it is no unuſual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in ſome thermometers, ſpirits of wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of ſnow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw ſometimes takes place, and then the froſt that ſucceeds, preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth level of ice, over which he travels in his ſledge with inconceivable ſwiftneſs. The heats of ſummer are exceſſive for a ſhort time; and the cataracts which daſh from the mountains, often preſent to the eye the moſt pictureſque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The reader muſt form in his mind, a vaſt maſs of mountains irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland: they are, however, in ſome interſtices, ſeparated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which form delightful habitations; and are believed by the natives to be the terreſtrial Paradiſe: even roſes and flowers grow wild on their borders in the ſummer; but this is but a ſhort gleam of temperature; for the climate in general is exceſſively ſevere. Duſky foreſts, and noiſome, unhealthy moraſſes, cover great part of the flat country; ſo that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the ſtate of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as thoſe of copper and lead, have been diſcovered and worked in Lapland: beautiful chryſtals are found here, as are ſome amethyſts and topazes; alſo various ſorts of mineral ſtones, ſurprizingly poliſhed by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have been ſometimes found in rivers, but never in the ſeas.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. } We muſt refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries. The zibelin, a creature reſembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its ſkin, whether black or white, is ſo much eſteemed, that it is frequently given as preſents to royal and diſtinguiſhed perſonages. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the moſt remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the rein-deer; which nature ſeems to have provided to ſolace the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the moſt uſeful perhaps of any in the creation, reſembles the ſtag, only it ſomewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. In ſummer, the rein-deer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs, and in the winter they live upon the moſs already deſcribed: they have a wonderful ſagacity at finding it out, and when found, they ſcrape away the ſnow, that covers it, with their feet. The ſcantineſs of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journeys which they can perform without any other ſupport. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller, well ſecured from cold, is laced down, with the reins in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and ſnow. The deer, whoſe harneſſing is very ſimple, ſets out, and continues the journey with prodigious ſpeed; and is ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to ſupport their maſter. Their inſtinct in chuſing their road and directing their courſe, can only be accounted for, by their being well acquainted with the country during the ſummer months, when they live in woods. Their fleſh is a well-taſted food, whether freſh or dried: their ſkin forms excellent cloathing both for the bed and the body: their milk and cheeſe are nutritive and pleaſant; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply their maſters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may be ſhot at as other game. But it is ſaid, that if one is killed in a flock, the ſurvivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore ſingle ſtragglers are generally pitched upon. Were I to recount every circumſtance, related by the credulous, of this animal, the whole would appear fabulous. It is ſufficient to obſerve further, that the number of tame rein-deers poſſeſſed by a Laplander, forms the chief part of his riches. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniences.

It is difficult in ſummer to keep them from ſtraggling; they are ſometimes buried in the ſnow; and they frequently grow reſtive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. His ſurprizing ſpeed (for they are ſaid to run at the rate of two hundred miles a day) ſeems to be owing to his impatience to get rid of his incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneaſy poſture, when he is confined in one of thoſe carriages or pulkhas; or believe that by whiſpering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their deſtination. But after all thoſe abatements, the natives would have difficulty to ſubſiſt without their rein-deer, which ſerves them for more purpoſes than I have room to mention.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is barbarous, but it ſeems radically to have come from Finland. Learning has made no progreſs among them; and they practiſe ſuch arts

arts only as ſupply them with the means of living. Miſſionaries from the chriſtianized parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the Chriſtian religion; but they cannot be ſaid even yet to be Chriſtians, though they have among them ſome religious ſeminaries, inſtituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practiſe as groſs ſuperſtitions and idolatries, as are to be found among the moſt uninſtructed pagans; and ſo abſurd, that they ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their ſuperſtitions, have induced the northern traders to believe that they are ſkilful in magic and divination. For this purpoſe their magicians, who are a peculiar ſet of men, make uſe of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a ſkin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jeſus Chriſt, the apoſtles, the ſun, moon, ſtars, birds, and rivers; on theſe they place one or two braſs rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and according to their progreſs, the ſorcerer prognoſticates. Thoſe frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of the impoſtors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's direction, they gain what wind they want. This is a very common traffic on the banks of the Red-Sea, and is managed with great addreſs on the part of the ſorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted taliſman. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of many of the Teutonic gods, but have among them great remains of the druidical inſtitutions. They believe the tranſmigration of the ſoul; and have feſtivals ſet apart for the worſhip of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or ſubſtance, they aſſign to them neither images nor ſtatues.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenneſs of its ſoil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general ſhorter by the head than more ſouthern Europeans. Maupertuis meaſured a woman, who was ſuckling her own child, whoſe height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make, however, a more human appearance than the men, who are ill-ſhaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies.

When a Laplander intends to marry, he, or his friends, court the intended bride's father with brandy; when, with ſome difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or ſome other eatable; which ſhe rejects before company, but accepts of in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchaſed from her father by the lover with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtſhip ſometimes for three years. The prieſt of the pariſh at laſt celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

COMMERCE.] Little can be ſaid of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports conſiſt of fiſh, rein-deer, furs, baſkets, and toys; with ſome dried pikes, and cheeſes made of rein-deer milk. They receive for their rixdollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, tobacco, and other neceſſaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconſiderable profit.

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The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. And the reader may make ſome eſtimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that 50 ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox-ſkin, and a pair of Lapland ſhoes, produce one rixdollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greateſt part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war; and ſo far as we know, never employed in any army. The above is the lateſt and beſt account that has been received of this extraordinary people. As to the other particulars relating to them, they are in common with their neighbours the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, and Ruſſians.

SWEDEN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 800	between	10 and 35 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 500		56 and 69 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. THIS country is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac, on the ſouth; by the impaſſable mountains of Norway, on the weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; and by Muſcovy, on the eaſt. It is divided into ſeven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (Thoſe two provinces belong now, however, to the Ruſſians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by poſterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swediſh Lapland: and 7. The Swediſh iſlands. Great abatements muſt be made for the lakes, and unimproved parts of Sweden; which are ſo extenſive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimenſions given us of this kingdom.

Sweden.	Square miles.	Sum total.	Length.	Breadth.	Capital Cities.
	76,835	228,715			
Sweden Proper —	47,900		342	194	STOCKHOLM, N. Lat. 59 20. E. Lon. 19 30.
Gothland — —	25,975		253	160	Calmar
Schonen — —	2,960		77	56	Lunden
		76,835			
Lapland, and W. Bothnia —	76,000		420	340	Torne, Uma
Finland, and E. Bothnia —	73,000		395	225	Abo, Cajenburg
Gothland I. —	1,000		80	23	Wiſby
Oeland I. —	560		85	10	Barkholm
		150,560			
Upper Pomerania, P.	960		47	24	Stralſund
Saxony Rugen I.	360		24	21	Bergen
		1,320			

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The face of Sweden is pretty ſimilar to thoſe of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] The ſame may be ſaid with regard to this article. Summer burſts from winter; and vegetation is more ſpeedy than in ſouthern climates; for the ſun is here ſo hot, as ſometimes to ſet foreſts on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is ſo intenſe, that the noſes and extremities of the inhabitants are ſometimes mortified; and in ſuch caſes, the beſt remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected part with ſnow. The Swedes, ſince the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenneſs of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in ſome places with great ſucceſs. The ſoil is much the ſame with that of Denmark, and ſome parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in ſome vallies ſurprizingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not induſtry ſufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peaſants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and ſome late accounts ſay, that they rear almoſt as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans; and in caſe of deficiency, the people are ſupplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In ſummer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce ſtrawberries, raſberries, currants, and other ſmall fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry ſeaſons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces chryſtals, amethyſts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other foſſils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however, ariſes from her mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron. The laſt mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering-mills, and ſmelting houſes. A kind of a gold mine has likewiſe been diſcovered in Sweden, but ſo inconſiderable, that from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,398 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. ſterling. The firſt gallery of one ſilver mine is 100 fathoms below the ſurface of the earth; the roof is ſupported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners deſcend about 40 fathoms to the loweſt vein. This mine is ſaid to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vaſt taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other reſources for the exigencies of ſtate. Thoſe ſubterraneous manſions are aſtoniſhingly ſpacious, and at the ſame time commodious for their inhabitants, ſo that they ſeem to form a hidden world. The waterfalls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for ſome years, the exports of Sweden for iron, brought in 300,000l. ſterling. Dr. Buſching thinks that they conſtituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that the extortions of the Swediſh government, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and ſome other cauſes, have greatly diminiſhed this manufacture in Sweden; ſo that the Swedes very ſoon muſt apply themſelves to other branches of trade and improvements, eſpecially in agriculture.

SEAS.] Their ſeas are the Baltic, and the gulphs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the weſt of Sweden, at the entrance of the Baltic, are the Categate ſea, and the Sound, a ſtrait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark, where ſhips of different nations pay a toll to the latter kingdom, as they paſs into the Baltic.

These seas have no tides, and are frozen up usually four months in the year: nor are they so salt as the ocean, never mixing with it, because a current sets always out of the Baltic sea into the ocean.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES. } These differ little from those already described in Norway and Denmark, to which I must refer; only the Swedish horses are known to be more serviceable in war than the German. The Swedish hawks, when carried to France, have been known to revisit their native country; as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inscription on a small gold plate, signifying that he belonged to the French king. The fishes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden, are the same with those in other northern countries, and taken in such quantities, that their pikes (particularly) are salted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the seals, taken in the gulph of Finland, is a considerable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } There is a great diversity of characters among the people of Sweden; and what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they have been known to have different characters in different ages. At present, their peasants seem to be a heavy plodding race of men, strong and hardy; but without any other ambition than that of subsisting themselves and their families as well as they can: the mercantile classes are much of the same cast; but great application and perseverance is discovered among them all. One could form no idea that the modern Swedes are the descendents of those, who, under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through the most distant countries, and shook the foundations of the greatest empires. The intrigues of their senators dragged them to take part in the late war against Prussia; yet their behaviour was spiritless, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hospitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national interests. The dress, exercises, and diversions of the common people, are almost the same with those of Denmark: the better sort are infatuated with French modes and fashions. They are not fond of marrying their daughters when young, as they have little to spare in their own life-time. The women go to plough, thresh out the corn, row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burthens, and do all the common drudgeries in husbandry.

RELIGION.] Christianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated among them by Gustavus Vasa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are surprizingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and have such an aversion to popery, that castration is the fate of every Roman-catholic priest discovered in their country. The archbishop of Upsal has a revenue of about 400l. a year; and has under him 13 suffragans, besides superintendents, with moderate stipends. No clergyman has the least direction in the affairs of state; but their morals, and the sanctity of their lives, endear them so much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of ecclesiastical laws and canons direct their religious œconomy. A conversion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot pass without the king's permission, is punished by imprisonment and exile.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swediſh language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and reſembles that of Denmark. The Swediſh nobility and gentry are, in general, more converſant in polite literature than thoſe of many other more flouriſhing ſtates. They have of late exhibited ſome noble ſpecimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature: witneſs their ſending, at the expence of private perſons, that excellent and candid natural philoſopher Haſelquiſt, into the eaſtern countries for diſcoveries, where he died. This noble ſpirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swediſh majeſty purchaſed, at no inconſiderable expence for that country, all Haſelquiſt's collection of curioſities. That able civilian, ſtateſman, and hiſtorian, Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and ſo is the preſent Linnæus, who has carried natural philoſophy, in ſome branches at leaſt, to the higheſt pitch. The paſſion of the famous queen Chriſtina for literature, is well known to the public; and ſhe may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. Even in the midſt of the preſent diſtractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, ſculpture, and architecture, are encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a great height in that kingdom; and the character given by ſome writers, that the Swedes are a dull heavy people, fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great meaſure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are the univerſities of Upſal, inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patronized by ſeveral ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Chriſtina. There is another at Abo, in Finland, but not ſo well endowed nor ſo flouriſhing: and there was a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is now fallen into decay. Every dioceſe is provided with a free-ſchool, in which boys are qualified for the univerſity.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] A few leagues from Gottenburg, there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity, from the height into ſo deep a bed of water, that large maſts, and other bodies of timber, that are precipitated down it, diſappear, ſome for half an hour, and others for an hour, before they are recovered: the bottom of this bed has never been found, though ſounded by lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms. A remarkable ſlimy lake, which ſinges things put into it, has been found in the ſouthern part of Gothland: and ſeveral parts of Sweden contain a ſtone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with ſeveral ſtreaks of white, as if compoſed of gold and ſilver, affords both ſulphur, vitriol, allum, and minium. The Swedes pretend to have a manuſcript copy of a tranſlation of the Goſpels into Gothic, done by a biſhop 1300 years ago.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The Swediſh commonalty ſubſiſt by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing. Their materials for traffic, are the bulky and uſeful commodities of maſts, beams, deal-boards, and other ſorts of timber for ſhipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-aſh, wooden utenſils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and ſail-cloth.

Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden ſo late as the 16th century; for till that time they ſold their own crude ore to the Hanſe towns, and bought it back again manufactured into utenſils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch and Flemings

Flemings, they ſet up ſome manufactures of glaſs, ſtarch, tin, woollen, ſilk, ſoap, leather-dreſſing, and ſaw-mills. Book-ſelling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have ſince had ſugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of ſail-cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; of linen, allum, brimſtone, paper-mills, and gun-powder-mills; vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, ſteel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have alſo founderies for cannon, forgeries for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flatting-mills, mills alſo for fulling, and for boring, and ſtamping; and of late they have built many ſhips for ſale.

Certain towns in Sweden, being 24 in number, are called Staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ſhips. Thoſe towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the ſea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to mine diſtricts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly encreaſed their exports, and diminiſhed their imports, moſt part of which arrive, or are ſent off in Swediſh ſhips; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation-act, like that of the Engliſh. Thoſe promiſing appearances were, however, blaſted, by the madneſs and jealouſies of the Swediſh government; the form of which ſhall be hereafter deſcribed; and the people are now ſo oppreſt with taxes, that ſome important revolution is daily expected in that kingdom.

Stockholm is a ſtaple-town, and the capital of the kingdom; it ſtands about 790 miles north eaſt from London, upon ſix contiguous iſlands, and built upon piles. The caſtle, though commodious, and covered with copper, has neither ſtrength nor beauty; but accommodates the royal court, and the national courts and colleges. The number of houſe-keepers who pay taxes are 60,000. The harbour is ſpacious and convenient, though difficult of acceſs, and this city is furniſhed with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666l. 13s. 4d. ſterling) that are common to other great European cities.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden, by which I mean its political conſtitutions, is of itſelf a ſtudy, occaſioned by the checks which each order has upon another. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free; but after various revolutions, which will be hereafter mentioned, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became deſpotic. He was ſucceeded by his ſiſter, Ulrica; who conſented to the abolition of deſpotiſm, and reſtored the ſtates to their former liberties; and they, in return, aſſociated her huſband, the Landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, with her in the government. A new model of the conſtitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden can ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the ſtates appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all employments of any value, eccleſiaſtical, civil or military, are conferred by the king only with the approbation of the ſenate. The eſtates are formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers and peaſants. The repreſentatives of the nobility, which includes the gentry, amount to above 1000, thoſe of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peaſants to 250. Each order ſits in its own houſe, and has its own ſpeaker; and each chuſes a ſecret committee for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſtates are to be convoked once in three years, in

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the month of January; and their collective body have greater power than the parliament of Great-Britain; becauſe, as it has been obſerved, the king's prerogative is far more bounded.

When the ſtates are not ſitting, the affairs of the public are managed by the king and the ſenate, which are no other than a committee of the ſtates, but choſen in a particular manner; the nobility, or upper houſe, appoint 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; theſe chuſe three perſons, who are to be preſented to the king, that he may nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peaſants have no vote in electing a ſenator. Almoſt all the executive power is lodged in the ſenate, which conſiſts of 14 members, beſides the chief governors of the provinces, the preſident of the chancery, and the grand marſhal. Thoſe ſenators, during the receſs of the ſtates, form the king's privy-council; but he has no more than a caſting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lie to them from different courts of judicature; but each ſenator is accountable for his conduct to the ſtates. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden may be called republican, for the king's power is not ſo great as a ſtadtholder. The ſenate has even a power of impoſing upon the king a ſub-committee of their number, who is to attend upon his perſon, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endleſs to recount the numerous ſubordinate courts, boards, commiſſions, and tribunals, which the jealouſy of the Swedes have introduced into the adminiſtration of civil, military, commercial, and other departments; it is ſufficient to ſay, that though nothing can be more plauſible, yet nothing is leſs practicable than the whole plan of their diſtributive powers. Their officers and miniſters, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, are multiplied to an inconvenient degree; many of their courts have little or nothing to do; and every operation of government is retarded or rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which it muſt paſs. This is ſeen in the preſent deplorable ſtate of Sweden, where its whole ſyſtem of government was lately in danger of annihilation; which muſt ſtill be the conſequence, if ſome material alterations are not introduced into it by the ſtates; for the king and people equally complain of the ſenate.

POLITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN. } The Swedes of late have been little better than penſioners to France. Through a ſtrange medley of affairs, and views of intereſt, that crown has vaſt influence in all the deliberations of their ſenate; though it is evident, that the great ſcheme of the French is, to enlarge the royal powers ſo as that the king, who muſt depend upon them for ſupport, may have it in his power to controul the reſolutions of the ſenate. The imprudence of the majority of that body, by reducing the royal power into too narrow a compaſs, and, at the ſame time, oppreſſing the people, afford them a fair proſpect of ſucceſs. It is, however, to be hoped, that his Swedish majeſty, the moment he is extricated from the preſent difficulties of his government, will apply himſelf to the true intereſts of his country, and be contented, under the guaranty of Great-Britain, to obſerve a ſtrict neutrality with regard both to Denmark and Ruſſia. The intereſt of Sweden even reaches as far as Turkey; for that empire found its account in balancing the power of Ruſſia by that of Charles XII. At preſent, Sweden is crippled in every operation; and ſuch are the public diſtractions, that her ſubjects are even diſabled from availing themſelves of the natural produce of their country in manufactures and exports.

REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden, ſince the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. has been greatly reduced. Her gold and ſilver ſpecie, in the late reign, aroſe chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly, the crown-lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are ſaid to have produced a million ſterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, is extremely inconvenient; ſome of thoſe pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate ſum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of ſilver, valued each at 5s. 2d. and the ſubſidies paid them by France help to encreaſe their currency.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] I have already hinted, that no country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be ſaid to maintain a ſtanding army, as their forces conſiſt of a regulated militia. The cavalry is cloathed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raiſed upon the nobility and gentry, according to their eſtates; and the infantry by the peaſants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of ſoldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70 l. per annum, is charged with a foot ſoldier, furniſhing him with diet, lodging and ordinary clothes, and about 20 s. a year in money; or elſe a little wooden houſe is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and paſturage for a cow, and plows and ſows land enough to ſupply him with bread. When embodied, they are ſubject to military law, but otherwiſe to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be ſaid, that every Swediſh ſoldier has a property in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men; and Sweden formerly could have fitted out forty ſhips of the line.

ROYAL TITLES.] Theſe are, King of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomeran, &c.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of ſubduing the Roman empire, and all the ſouthern nations of Europe. I ſhall not here follow the wild romances of Swediſh hiſtorians through the early ages. It is ſufficient to ſay, that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy, as any we know of. Nor ſhall I diſpute her being the paramount ſtate of Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway) and that ſhe borrowed her name from one of her princes. The introduction of Chriſtianity, however, by Anſgarius, biſhop of Bremen, in 829, ſeems to preſent the firſt certain period of the Swediſh hiſtory.

The hiſtory of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the firſt ages of chriſtianity, is confuſed and unintereſting, and often doubtful; but ſufficiently replete with murders, maſſacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of conſiſtency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it aſſumes an appearance more regular and conſiſtent; and affords wherewith to recompence the attention of thoſe who chooſe to make it an object of their ſtudies. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly aſcertained, or uniformly adminiſtered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether diſregarded. The great lords poſſeſſed the moſt conſiderable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which conſiſted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or

neglected, and even agriculture itſelf in a very rude and imperfect ſtate. The clergy, particularly thoſe of a dignified rank, from the great reſpect paid to their character, among the inhabitants of the north, had acquired an immenſe influence in all public affairs, and had obtained poſſeſſions of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. Theſe two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the ſtate, formed a council called the Senate, which was maſter of all public deliberations. This ſyſtem of government was extremely unfavourable to the national proſperity. The Swedes periſhed in the diſſentions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between thoſe and their ſovereign; they were drained of the little riches they poſſeſſed, to ſupport the indolent pomp of a few magnificent biſhops; and what was ſtill more fatal, the unlucky ſituation of their internal affairs, expoſed them to the inroads and oppreſſion of a foreign enemy. Theſe were the Danes, who, by their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themſelves of the diſſentions in Sweden, and to ſubject under a foreign yoke, a country weakened and exhauſted by its domeſtic broils. In this deplorable ſituation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; ſometimes under the nominal ſubjection of its own princes, ſometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either caſe equally oppreſſed and inſulted.

Towards the year 1374, Margaret, daughter of Valdenar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both theſe kingdoms. That princeſs, to the ordinary ambition of her ſex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greateſt and moſt complicated deſigns. She has been called the Semiramis of the north, becauſe, like Semiramis, ſhe found means to reduce by arms or by intrigue, an immenſe extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway and Sweden. She projected the union of Calmar, ſo famous in the north, by which theſe kingdoms were for the future to remain under one ſovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who ſhould divide his reſidence between them all. Chriſtiern II. the laſt king of Denmark, who, by virtue of this agreement, was alſo king of Sweden, had an ambition to become abſolute. The barbarous policy, by which he attempted to effectuate this deſign no leſs barbarous, proved the deſtruction of himſelf, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to eſtabliſh his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for maſſacring the principal nobility. This horrid deſign was actually carried into execution, November 8, 1510. Of all thoſe who could oppoſe the deſpotic purpoſes of Chriſtiern, no one remained in Sweden, but Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince, deſcended of the antient kings of that country, and who had already ſignalized his arms againſt the king of Denmark. An immenſe price was laid on his head. The Daniſh ſoldiers were ſent in purſuit of him; but by his dexterity and addreſs, he eluded all their attempts, and eſcaped under the diſguiſe of a peaſant, to the mountains of Dalicarlia. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues, how to prevent his diſcovery he wrought in the braſs-mines, how he was betrayed by thoſe in whom he repoſed his confidence, and in fine, ſurmounting a thouſand obſtacles, engaged the ſavage but warlike inhabitants of Dalicarlia, to undertake his cauſe, to oppoſe, and to conquer his tyrannical oppreſſor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. The antient nobility were moſtly deſtroyed. Guſtavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his per-

ſon. He was created, therefore, firſt adminiſtrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the univerſal conſent, and with the ſhouts of the whole nation. His circumſtances were much more favourable than thoſe of any former prince, who had poſſeſſed this dignity. The maſſacre of the nobles, had rid him of thoſe proud and haughty enemies, who had ſo long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no leſs powerful and dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the north, the force with which they were ſupported, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious ſyſtem of that country, and the exerciſe of the Roman catholic religion was prohibited, under the ſevereſt penalties, (which have never yet been relaxed) in the year 1544. Inſtead of a Gothic ariſtocracy, the moſt turbulent of all governments, and when empoiſoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the moſt wretched, Sweden in this manner became a regular monarchy: the happy effects of this change were ſoon viſible. Arts and manufactures were eſtabliſhed and improved; navigation and commerce began to flouriſh; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the reſt of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties or deliberations.

Guſtavus, after a glorious reign, died in 1559; while his eldeſt ſon Eric, was preparing to embark for England, to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who ſucceeded his father, Guſtavus Vaſa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miſerable and cauſeleſs jealouſy of his brothers, forced them to take up arms, and the ſenate ſiding with them, he was depoſed in 1566. His brother John ſucceeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-eſtabliſh the catholic religion in Sweden; but though he made ſtrong efforts for that purpoſe, and even reconciled himſelf to the pope, he was oppoſed by his brother Charles, and the ſcheme proved ineffectual. John's ſon, Sigiſmund, was, however, choſen king of Poland in 1587, upon which he endeavoured again to reſtore the Roman-catholic religion in his dominions, but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to king John, was choſen adminiſtrator of Sweden; and being a ſtrenuous proteſtant, his nephew, Sigiſmund, endeavoured to drive him from the adminiſtratorſhip, but without effect; till at laſt, he and his family were excluded from the ſucceſſion to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigiſmund, who was himſelf a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Ruſſia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, though then a minor, and heir apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the ſtates, though then only in his eighteenth year. Guſtavus, ſoon after his acceſſion, found himſelf, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Ruſſians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite diſadvantages; all which he ſurmounted. He narrowly miſſed being maſter of Ruſſia; but the Ruſſians were ſo tenacious of their independency, that his ſcheme was baffled. In 1617, he made a peace, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with a ſum of money beſides.

The ideas of Guſtavus began now to extend. He had ſeen a vaſt deal of military ſervice, and he was aſſiſted by the counſels of La Gardie, one of the beſt generals and wiſeſt ſtateſmen of his age. His troops, by perpetual war, had become the beſt diſciplined and moſt warlike in Europe; and he carried his ambition farther than hiſtorians are willing to acknowledge. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterprizing ſpirit, and ſupported his antient implacable enemy Sigiſmund, whom Guſtavus defeated; and in 1627, he formed the ſiege of Dantzic, in which he was unſucceſsful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the ſudden riſe of the Viſtula, added ſo much to his military character, that the proteſtant cauſe placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the houſe of Auſtria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the moſt rapid and wonderful ſucceſſes: even the mention of each would exceed our bounds. It is ſufficient to ſay, that after taking Riga, and overrunning Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburgh, defeated the famous count Tilly, the Auſtrian general, who was till then thought invinçible; and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenſtein, another Auſtrian general of equal reputation, was appointed to command againſt Guſtavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen, after gaining a battle; which had he ſurvived, would probably have put a period to the Auſtrian greatneſs.

The amazing abilities of Guſtavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared ſo fully as after his death. He left behind him a ſet of generals, trained by himſelf, who maintained the glory of the Swediſh army with moſt aſtoniſhing valour and ſucceſs. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torſtenſon, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, never can be forgotten in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what courſe Guſtavus would have purſued, had his life been prolonged, and his ſucceſſes continued; but there is the ſtrongeſt reaſons to believe that he had in his eye ſomewhat more than the relief of the proteſtants, and the reſtoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor, Oxenſtiern, was as conſummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Chriſtina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with ſuch ſucceſs, that ſhe in a manner dictated the peace of Weſtphalia, which threw the affairs of Europe into a new ſyſtem.

Chriſtina was but ſix years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court Deſcartes, Salmaſius, and other learned men; to whom ſhe was not, however, extremely liberal. She expreſſed a value for Grotius; and ſhe was an excellent judge of the polite arts: but illiberal, and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the ſame time diſcharged all the duties of her high ſtation; and though her generals were baſely betrayed by France, ſhe continued to ſupport the honour of her crown. Being reſolved not to marry, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin, Charles Guſtavus, ſon to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great ſucceſs againſt the Poles: he drove their king, John Caſimir, into Sileſia; and received from them an oath of allegiance which, with their uſual inconſtancy, they broke. His progreſs upon the ice againſt Denmark, has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles XI. was not five years

age at his father's death; and this rendered it neceſſary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the iſlands of Bornholm, and Drontheim, in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the ſame time with Ruſſia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very reſpectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a ſubſidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland againſt him. He afterwards joined with France againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but being beaten in Germany at Felim-Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed againſt him. The elector of Brandenburgh made himſelf maſter of the Swediſh Pomerania; the biſhop of Munſter over-ran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wiſmar, and ſeveral places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles by the treaty of St. Germains, which followed that of Nimeguen, recovered all he had loſt, except ſome places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's ſiſter, but made a very bad uſe of the tranquillity he had regained; for he enſlaved and beggared his people, that he might render his power deſpotic, and his army formidable. The ſtates loſt all their power; and Sweden was reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to loſe his head and his right hand, for the boldneſs of his remonſtrance in favour of his countrymen, but he ſaved himſelf by flight; and Charles became ſo conſiderable a power, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwic were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, the famous Charles XII. The hiſtory of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen, but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the management of count Piper; who became thereby his firſt miniſter. Soon after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He made head againſt them all; and beſieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein was re-eſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but ſuch was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 80,000, entirely routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. Such were his ſucceſſes, and ſo numerous his priſoners, that the Ruſſians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike atchievements equalled, if they did not excel, thoſe of Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus king of Poland: but he ſtained all his laurels, by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raiſed Staniſlaus to the crown of Poland; and his name carried with it ſuch terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of her ſucceſſes againſt France. His ſtubbornneſs and implacable diſpoſition, however, was ſuch, that he cannot be conſidered in a better light than that of an illuſtrious madman; for he loſt, in the battle of Pultowa, which he fought in his march to de-

throne the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks found it, however, convenient for their affairs, to ſet him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madneſs; and after his return to his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon-ſhot, at the ſiege of Fredericſhal, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than 36 years of age.

Charles XII. was ſucceeded, as I have already mentioned, by his ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Heſſe. We have already ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given the ſubſtance of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her huſband, when they entered upon the exerciſe of government. Their firſt care was to make a peace with Great-Britain; which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent their farther loſſes by the progreſs of the Ruſſian, the Daniſh, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great ſacrifices to obtain peace from thoſe powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed a dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the Hats; which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Their Swediſh majeſties having no children, it was neceſſary to ſettle the ſucceſſion; eſpecially as the duke of Holſtein was deſcended from the queen's eldeſt ſiſter, and was, at the ſame time, the preſumptive heir to the empire of Ruſſia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holſtein Gottorp; prince Frederic of Heſſe-Caſſel, nephew to the king; the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holſtein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Ruſſia. The czarina interpoſed, and offered to reſtore all the conqueſts ſhe had made from Sweden, excepting a ſmall diſtrict in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holſtein's uncle, the biſhop of Lubec, as their hereditary prince and ſucceſſor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty. This peace was ſo firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Daniſh majeſty thought proper to drop all the effects of his reſentment, and the indignity done his ſon. The prince ſucceſſor married the princeſs Ulrica, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia; and entered into the poſſeſſion of his new dignity, which has proved to him a crown of thorns, in 1751. The reader, from what has been already premiſed, can be at no loſs to know the ſequel of the Swediſh hiſtory to this preſent time *.

* Adolphus Frederick, of Holſtein Gottorp, king of Sweden, was born in 1710, married in 1744, to Louiſa Ulrica, third ſiſter to the preſent king of Pruſſia, born in 1720. They have iſſue,

1. Guſtavus, born in 1746, and married in 1766 to the princeſs royal of Denmark.
2. Charles, born in 1748.
3. Frederick Adolphus, born in 1750.
4. Sophia Albertina, born in 1753.


Arctic Circle
SWEDEN
Gulf of Bothnia
Stockholm
Abo
Gulf of Finland
BALTIC SEA
Torne
Tula
Kimi
Cajanaburg
Enare Trosk
Kola
LAPLAND
Koroda
Orenskoy
Kema
Ruffian Finland
Jouent
Jaxa
Kexholm
Carelia
Wyburg
Sassu
PETERSBURG
Ingria
Ingra R.
Narva
Revel
Pernau
Livonia
Dorpat
Pepus L.
Novogorod
Wolkoskoi
Smolensko
Riga
Mitau
COURLAND
Memel
Memel R.
Dantzic
Konigsburg
Elbing
Stettin
PRUSSIA
Thorn
Bug R.
Warsan
Wistel R.
Wilna
LITHUANIA
Novgorodek
Rzeczica
Sandomira
Cracow
POLAND
Lucko
VOLHINIA
Lemburg
Braslaw
Dniester R.
Bender
TURKY in EUROPE
Ukrain
Land of the Cossacks
Circassi
Nogay Tartars
Black Forest
Oczakow
British Miles.
20 60 120 180
10
15
20
25
30
35
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55
50
45


RUSSIA
or
MOSCOVY
in
EUROPE.
70 East Longit. from London.
III Hours East from London
T. Kitchin Sculp.
OCEAN
SARMATIA EUROPEA
SIBERIA
Mangasea
Pesora R.
Bresova
Cololina
Mesen
Lampazenskoi
Pustoi
Oserkoi
Zonaia R.
Solova R.
Oby R.
Dwina
Archangel
Syrians
Zolotnitzgoda
Pustozerskoi
Osero Pesorkoi
Iam
Usga
Ilima
Irtis R.
Demian
Usluga
Bobroffskaja
Permia
Sestorensk
Surdin
Solokamskoi
Tobol
Irtis R.
Kama R.
Orool
Slobod
Galitz
Glinof
Korelnitz
Ribnaia
Wergotur
Iaparzin
Tobol R.
Kasan
Wogulitzoi
Tumeen
Wolodimer
Kasan Paganetzina
Kama R.
Basilgorod
Czerneffi
Bulgar
Pustof
Pfoleikorfa
Bulgar
Swiatska
Novogorod
Sinbirska
Kadom
Temnik
Desart
Saratof
Wolga R.
Mighailof
Bocsodock
Donnitskoi
Kamasinka
Tafla
Colubay
Cossacks
Don R.
45
50
55
60

MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1500 Breadth 1100	between	23 and 65 east long. 47 and 72 north lat.

DIVISIONS AND NAME. ACCORDING to the most authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it consists of 15 (Mr. Voltaire says 16) provinces, or governments; besides part of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, and Livonia, which were conquered from Sweden; also the dutchy of Courland in Poland, of which the empress of Russia has now the entire disposal.

The following are the dimensions of it, given us by Templeman.

	Russia.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.	
Greek Church	Rus. or Mus.	784,650	1160	1050	Moscow,	
	Belgorod,	72,900	375	285	Waronetz,	
	Don Cossacks,	57,000	400	280	Panchina,	
	Uk. Cossacks,	45,000	330	205	Kiow,	
	Lapland,	72,000	405	270	Kola,	
Conquered from Sweden since 1700.	Finland,	41,310	320	180	PETERSBURG,	N. Lat. 60 E. Lon. 30—25
	Livonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga,	
	Ingria,	9,100	175	90	Notteburg.	
	Total—	1,103,485				

The reader, however, is to observe, that the knowledge the public has of this empire, is but lately acquired; and is still so doubtful, that it is very difficult to fix even the limits between the European and Asiatic Russia. As to the names of Russia and Muscovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the antient inhabitants, the Russi, or Boruſſi, and the river Mosca, upon which the antient capital Moscow was built; but of this we know nothing certain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. In the southern parts of Russia, or Muscovy, the longest day does not exceed 15 hours and a half; whereas in the most northern, the sun is seen in summer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muscovy a vast diversity of soil as well as climate, and that the extremes of both are to be seen and felt in this vast empire. The quickness of vegetation here, is pretty much the same as has been described in Scandinavia. The snow is the natural manure of Russia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miserably fed; the soil produces a vast number of mushrooms for their subsistence; and in some places, besides oaks and firs, Russia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, pasture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields

them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Ruſſia was populous in former days, is not to be diſputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture; and ſupplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of ſaw-duſt and a preparation of fiſh-bones. Peter the Great, and his ſucceſſors, down to the preſent empreſs, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the ſoil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vaſt fertility in ſome provinces, bids fair to make grain as common in Ruſſia, as it is in the ſouthern countries of Europe. The vaſt communications, by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, ſerve to ſupply one province with thoſe products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Ruſſia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. The Zimnopoias mountains, which lie in this empire, are thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the antients. The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Wolga, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of above 2000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea: it is not only reckoned the largeſt, but one of the moſt fertile rivers of Europe: it produces all kinds of fiſh; and fertilizes all the lands on each ſide with the richeſt trees, fruits, and vegetables. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the moſt eaſtern part of Ruſſia from Aſia; and in its courſe towards the eaſt, comes ſo near the Wolga, that the late czar had undertaken to have cut a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, excluſive of its turnings and windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, or ſea of Aſoph, about 400 miles from its riſe. The Boriſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Coſſacks, and that of the Nagaiſch Tartars, which falls into the Euxine, or Black-ſea, near Oczakow; it has 13 cataracts within a ſmall diſtance.

As to foreſts, they abound in this extenſive country; and the northern and north-eaſtern provinces, are in a manner deſart; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Chriſtians rather than Pagans. Upon the whole, Muſcovy is in general a flat level country.

ANIMALS, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. Theſe do not differ greatly from thoſe deſcribed in the Scandinavian provinces; to which we muſt refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; and makes prey of every creature it can maſter: they are ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree foreſts. The hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already deſcribed, afford their furs for cloathing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes, and ermine, are more valuable in Ruſſia than elſewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almoſt the only beaſts of burden known in many parts of Ruſſia. Czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horſes for war and carriages; but thoſe employed in the ordinary purpoſes of life are but ſmall; as are their cows and ſheep, which they ſalt for their winter proviſions.

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We know of few or no birds in Ruſſia, that have not been already deſcribed. The ſame may be ſaid of fiſhes; only the Ruſſians are better provided than their neighbours are with ſturgeon, cod, ſalmon, and belagas: the latter reſemble a ſturgeon, and is from 12 to 15 feet in length; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the ſturgeon and the belaga, the Ruſſians make the famous cavear; ſo much eſteemed for its richneſs and flavour, that it is often ſent in preſents to crowned heads.

POPULATION, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. Nothing can be more injudicious, or remote from truth, than the accounts we have from authors, of the population of this vaſt empire; the whole of which, they think, does not exceed, at moſt, ſeven millions. It is ſurprizing that ſuch a miſtake ſhould have continued ſo long, when we conſider the immenſe armies brought into the field by the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Aſia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire is, perhaps, the firſt author who has attempted to undeceive the public in this reſpect; and has done it upon very authentic grounds, by producing a liſt, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation, or poll-tax, and which amount to 6,646,390. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, nor boys born between the making of one regiſter of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads ſubject to be taxed, including women and girls, we ſhall find near 20,000,000 of ſouls. To this account may be added 350,000 ſoldiers, and 200,000 nobility and clergy; and foreigners of all kinds, who are likewiſe exempted from the poll-tax; as alſo (ſays Mr. Voltaire) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely, Livonia, Eſthonia, Ingria, Carelia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Coſſacs, the Calmucs, and other Tartars; the Samojedes, the Laplanders, the Oſtiacs, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this liſt. Upon the whole, this writer does not exaggerate, when he affirms, that the inhabitants of Ruſſia do not amount to fewer than 24,000,000.

As her imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias poſſeſſes many of the countries from whence the prodigious ſwarms of barbarians who over-threw the Roman empire iſſued, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that her dominions muſt have been better peopled formerly than they are at preſent; 24,000,000 being but a thin population for the immenſe tracts of country ſhe poſſeſſes. As the like decreaſe of inhabitants is obſervable in many other parts of the globe, we are to look for the reaſon in natural cauſes, which we cannot diſcuſs here. Perhaps the introduction of the ſmall-pox, and the venereal diſeaſe, may have aſſiſted in the depopulation; and it is likely, that the prodigious quantity of ſtrong and ſpirituous liquors, conſumed by the inhabitants of the north, is unfriendly to generation.

The Ruſſians, properly ſo called, are in general a perſonable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, eſpecially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-ſight ſeems to be defective, occaſioned, probably, by the ſnow, which for ſo long a time of the year is continually preſent to their eyes. Their officers and ſoldiers always poſſeſſed a large ſhare of paſſive valour; but in the late war with the king of Pruſſia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe. They are implicitly ſubmiſſive to diſcipline, let it be ever ſo ſevere; and on ſuch occaſions they appear to be void of the

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ſenſations to which other people are ſubject, eſpecially in the meanneſs of their repaſts, and hardneſs of their fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenneſs; no fewer than 4000 brandy-ſhops have been reckoned in Moſcow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, lived in a continued ſtate of idleneſs and intoxication; and the moſt complete objects of miſery and barbarity preſented themſelves upon the ſtreets, while the court of Moſcow was by far the moſt ſplendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dreſſed after the moſt ſuperb Aſiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carliſle, in the account of his embaſſy, ſays that he could ſee nothing but gold and precious ſtones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of thoſe, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter ſaw the bulk of his ſubjects, at his acceſſion to the throne, little better than beaſts of burden to ſupport the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The other improvements, in learning and the arts, which he made, ſhall be mentioned elſewhere. The Ruſſians, before his days, had not a ſhip upon their coaſts. They had no conveniencies for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no places of public diverſion; and they entertained a ſovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At preſent, a French or Engliſh gentleman may make a ſhift to live as comfortably and ſociably in Ruſſia, as in any other part of Europe. Their ſtoves which they make uſe of, diffuſe a more equal and genial warmth than our grates and chimnies. Their polite aſſemblies have, ſince the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs, been put under proper regulations; and few of the antient uſages remain, but ſuch as are of public utility, and adapted to the nature of their country. It is, however, to be obſerved, that notwithſtanding the ſeverity of Peter, and the prudence of ſucceeding governments, drunkenneſs ſtill continues among all ranks; nor are even prieſts or ladies aſhamed of it on holidays.

It is commonly thought that the Ruſſian ladies are as ſubmiſſive to their huſbands in their families, as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field; and that they think themſelves ill treated if they are not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſent to their huſbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themſelves; and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diſuſed. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is examined ſtark naked by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defects they find in her perſon. On her wedding day ſhe is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or ſexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wiſhing that ſhe may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarſe, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even by the loweſt ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their huſbands, which extended even to ſcourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage contract.

FUNERALS.] The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions with regard to the ſtate of departed ſouls. After the dead body is dreſt, a prieſt is hired to pray for his ſoul, to purify it with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water, while it remains above ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by the biſhop and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin, the company returns to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow in intoxication; which laſts, among the better ſort, with a few intervals, for 40 days. During that time, a prieſt every day ſays prayers over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be aſſiſted by prayer, in his long journey, to the place of his deſtination after this life.

PUNISHMENTS.] The Ruſſians are remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themſelves to death, hundreds, nay, thouſands at a time. The ſingle and double knoute were lately inflicted upon ladies, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knoute, the hands are bound behind the priſoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the diſlocation of both his ſhoulders; and then his back is in a manner ſcarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild aſs's ſkin. This puniſhment has been ſo often fatal, that a ſurgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it ſhould ceaſe. The boring and cutting out the tongue, are likewiſe practiſed in Ruſſia; and even the late empreſs Elizabeth, though ſhe prohibited capital puniſhments, was forced to give way to the neceſſity of thoſe tortures. From theſe particulars, many have concluded that the feelings of the Ruſſians are different from thoſe of mankind in general.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Ruſſia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. Nothing ſtrikes, either a reader or a ſtranger, more than the facility with which the Ruſſians perform the longeſt and moſt uncomfortable journies. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, already deſcribed, they travel in ſledges drawn by rein-deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Ruſſia, horſes draw their ſledges; and the ſledge-way, towards February, becomes ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the ſledges, in which they travel night and day; ſo that they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, ſuch as that between Peterſburgh and Moſcow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majeſty, in her journies, is drawn in a houſe, which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniencies, for four people, by 24 poſt-horſes; and the houſe itſelf is fixed on a ſledge.

COSSACS, AND OTHER NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA.] As the preſent ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, are the deſcendents of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, ſo we find among them a vaſt variety of character and manners; and the great reformations introduced of late years, as well as the diſcoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended

depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Ruſſian dominions, now live in fixed houſes and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other ſubjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Ruſſian armies; but they now make excellent ſoldiers. Other Ruſſian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both ſides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Zeremiſſes and Morduars; a peaceable induſtrious people. The Baſkirs are likewiſe fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Caſan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Calmucs occupy the reſt of this tract to Aſtracan and the frontiers of the Uſbecs; and in conſideration of certain preſents they receive from her imperial majeſty, they ſerve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends as foes.

As the Coſſacs make now a figure in the military hiſtory of Europe, ſome account of them may not be unacceptable. They were originally Poliſh peaſants, and ſerved in the Ukrain as a militia againſt the Tartars. Being oppreſſed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there eſtabliſhed a colony. They were ſoon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Aſoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in aſhes. They next put themſelves under the protection of the Ruſſians, built Circaſky, on an iſland in the Don; and their poſſeſſions, which conſiſted of 39 towns on both ſides that river, reached from Ribna to Aſoph. They there lived in a fruitful country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were ſo wedded to their original cuſtoms, that they were little better than nominal ſubjects of the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They profeſſed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and occaſionally ſerved againſt the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Coſſacs approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the ancient Germans, as deſcribed by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nation chuſe a chief, whom they call Hetman, and he reſides at Circaſka; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hetman holds his authority during life. He acts as a ſuperior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a ſeparate commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is choſen annually. They ſerve in war, in conſideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have ſeveral times rebelled, for which they ſuffered ſeverely under Peter the Great. But the Ruſſian yoke was ſo much eaſier than that of the Poles, that in 1654, the Coſſacs of the Ukrain put themſelves likewiſe under the protection of Ruſſia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their hetman, Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himſelf unable to fulfil the magnificent promiſes he had made to Charles. He brought over, however, ſome of the Zaparovian Coſſacs, who are ſettled about the falls of the river Nieper, but moſt of them were cut in pieces.

The Ruſſians were formerly noted for ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native ſoil, that they ſeldom viſited foreign parts. This, however, was only the conſequence of their pride and ignorance; for Ruſſian nobility, beſides thoſe who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majeſty even intereſts herſelf in the education of young men of quality, in the knowledge of the world, and foreign ſervices, particularly

larly that of the Britiſh fleet. No people have ſhewn a greater adventuring ſpirit than the Ruſſians; witneſs the diſcovery of Kamtſchatka, a country ſo little known, that it is doubtful to what quarter of the globe it pertains; but it certainly bids the faireſt country in the world, to lie contiguous to America: and perhaps it may ſoon appear, that the Kamtſchadales and the Americans are the ſame.

The beſt account we have of Kamtſchatka is from Mr. Steller and Mr. Kraſheninicoff, the latter of whom publiſhed their diſcoveries, under the ſanction of the Peterſburgh academy. The Kamtſchadales, from being a people as wild as their country, are now in a fair way of becoming good Chriſtians. They travel in ſmall carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtſchadalian equipage, dogs, harneſs and all, coſts in that country 4l. 10s. or near 20 rubles. The Kamtſchadales believed the immortality of the ſoul, before they were Chriſtians. They are ſuperſtitious to extravagance; and extremely ſingular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments. They ſeem to be of Tartar original; and before they were humanized, their appearance and manners partook ſtrongly of thoſe of the Eſquimaux in North America.

The Siberians, or more properly Tartars, inhabiting an unknown extent of country in the northern parts of Aſia, are now ſubjects of Ruſſia, and whoſe uſages deſerve to be mentioned; but we know leſs of them, than we do of the Kamtſchadales. Many of them, as has been already hinted, are ſtill groſs pagans; and their manners were ſo barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater puniſhment upon his capital enemies the Swedes, than by baniſhing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swediſh officers and ſoldiers introduced European uſages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. The Mahometan Tartars form a conſiderable part of the natives: and according to the lateſt accounts, nature has been ſo kind to the country, that an exile to Siberia will hereafter be but a very ſlight puniſhment.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to be diſcuſſed here. It is ſufficient to ſay, that they deny the pope's ſupremacy; and though they diſclaim image-worſhip, they retain many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly; an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for their ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments and trinity. They oblige their biſhops, but not their prieſts, to celibacy. Peter the Great ſhewed his profound knowledge of government in nothing more, than the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch, and the great clergy. He declared himſelf the head of the church; and preſerved the ſubordinations of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixed income, but depend for ſubſiſtence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſeſſion of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his days, an incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh thoſe ſocieties. The abuſes of them, however, are in a great meaſure removed; for

for no male can become a monk till he is turned of 30; and no female, or nun, till ſhe is 50; and even then not without the expreſs permiſſion of their ſuperiors.

The conquered provinces, as I have already obſerved, retain the exerciſe of their own religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Ruſſian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity.

LANGUAGE.] The common language of Ruſſia, is a mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts, however, and the moſt learned of their clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek; and they who know that language in its purity, are at no loſs for underſtanding it in its corrupted ſtate. The Ruſſians have 36 letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Ruſſians, hitherto, have made but an inconſiderable appearance in the republic of letters; but the great encouragement given by their ſovereigns of late, in the inſtitution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs, that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them, at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe; eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtronomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marſhal at the late opening of the commiſſion for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical; and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire ſince the beginning of this century, is an evidence, that the Ruſſians are as capable as any of their neighbours to ſhine in the arts and ſciences.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moſcow; one for claſſical learning and philoſophy, the ſecond for mathematics, and the third for navigation and aſtronomy. To theſe he added a diſpenſary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of ſome able German chemiſts and apothecaries; who furniſh medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. And within theſe few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an univerſity in this city.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Ruſſia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however, produce, many ſtupendous monuments of the public ſpirit of her ſovereigns; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. I have already hinted at the paſſion the Ruſſians have for bell-ringing; and we are told, that the great bell of Moſcow, the largeſt in the world, weighs 443,772 pounds weight; and was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne; but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broke out of it; ſo that it lately lay in a manner uſeleſs. The building of Peterſburgh, and raiſing it of a ſudden from a few fiſhing-huts, to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curioſity hardly to be paralleled ſince the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The ſame may be ſaid of the fortreſs of Kronſtadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterſburgh, which is almoſt impregnable. This fortreſs and city employed, for ſome years, 300,000 men, in laying its foundations, and driving

driving piles, night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raiſed to his people, at the time when they could not be ſaid to have poſſeſſed a ſhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he wrought in perſon in all thoſe amazing works, with the ſame aſſiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. Peterſburgh naturally takes the lead in this diviſion. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its ſituation, by being informed that it ſtands on both ſides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulph. In the year 1703, this city conſiſted of two ſmall fiſhing huts, on a ſpot ſo wateriſh and ſwampy, that the ground was formed into nine iſlands; by which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are ſtill divided. Without entering into too minute a deſcription of this wonderful city, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it extends about ſix miles every way; and contains every ſtructure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the moſt celebrated cities in Europe. It may appear ſurprizing, that the lateſt authors who treat of that country, differ widely as to the population of Peterſburgh. Voltaire tells us, that it is ſaid to contain at preſent 400,000 ſouls. This ſeems to be an overrate, even admitting the imperial troops, attendants, and officers of ſtate to be included. Buſching, whom I am rather inclined to follow, thinks that Peterſburgh conſiſts of about 8000 houſes, and contains about 100,000 inhabitants: a number, however, that would ſeem to be diſproportioned to that of the houſes, did we not reflect on the great number of ſervants maintained by the Ruſſian nobility and merchants. The new ſummer palace is reckoned one of the fineſt pieces of architecture in Europe. In the middle of the city (which has neither gates nor walls) is a ſtrong, beautiful fort; and the admiralty and dock-yards are likewiſe well fortified.

As Peterſburg is the emporium of Ruſſia, the number of foreign ſhips trading to it in the ſummer time is ſurpriſing. In winter, 3000 one-horſe ſledges are employed for paſſengers in the ſtreets. It contains twenty Ruſſian, and four Lutheran churches, beſides thoſe of the Calviniſts and Roman-Catholics; and is the ſeat of a univerſity, and ſeveral academies. Peterſburgh is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conqueſts from the Swedes.

The city of Moſcow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it ſtill continues conſiderable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It ſtands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from whence it takes its name, in lat. 55-45, about 1414 miles north-eaſt of London; and though its ſtreets are not regular, it preſents a very pictureſque appearance, for it contains ſuch a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and ſtreams, that it ſeems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. The antient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not atteſted by the moſt unqueſtionable authors: but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated ſtate of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater luſtre in a traveller's eyes. Neither Voltaire nor Buſching gives us any ſatisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters,

quarters, and each quarter inhabited by a different order or profeſſion. Buſching ſpeaks of it as the largeſt city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it ſtands on. It is generally agreed, that Moſcow contains 1600 churches and convents, and 43 places or ſquares. Buſching makes the merchants exchange to contain about 6000 fine ſhops, which diſplay a vaſt parade of commerce, eſpecially to and from China. No city diſplays a greater contraſt than Moſcow, of magnificence and meanneſs in building. The houſes of the inhabitants in general are miſerable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are ſpacious and lofty. The Krimlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures in the world: it lies in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleaſure-houſe, and ſtables, a victualling-houſe, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, 9 cathedrals, 5 convents, 4 pariſh churches, the arſenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Krimlin have beautiful ſpires, moſt of them gilt or covered with ſilver: the architecture is in the Gothic taſte; but the inſides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the ſaints are decorated with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than 9 towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a ſilver branch with 48 lights, ſaid to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would ſcarcely ſuffice to recount the other particulars of this city's magnificence. Its ſumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble ſtructures. The public is no ſtranger to the barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Baſilides ordered the architect of the church of Jeruſalem to be deprived of his eye-ſight, that he might never contrive its equal. The ſtory is improbable, and took its riſe from the arbitrary diſpoſition of that great prince. I have already mentioned the great bell of Moſcow; where the inhabitants are ſo diſtractedly fond of bells, that they are always tinkling in every quarter. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in the Krimlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is ſeen at the famous Holy Houſe of Loretto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moſcow at the time he was building Peterſburgh; for he cauſed it to be paved, adorned with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

Nothing can be ſaid with certainty as to the population of Moſcow. When lord Carliſle was the Engliſh ambaſſador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was 12 miles in compaſs, and the number of houſes were computed at 40,000. Voltaire ſays, that Moſcow was then twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000; but it is almoſt impoſſible to make an eſtimate of its preſent population.

COMMERCE AND POLITICAL INTERESTS. } I have joined theſe two articles under one head, becauſe ſuch is the ſituation and ſtrength of Ruſſia, that ſhe has nothing either to hope or to fear but from commerce. It is true, her territories are acceſſible on the ſide of Poland, and therefore it is her intereſt to preſerve a ſtrong party in that country; but even this policy has commerce chiefly for its object, becauſe the greateſt part of the Diſſidents of Poland are the only traders in that great country; and three fourths of them being of the Greek church, conſider her imperial majeſty as their patroneſs and protector.

In

In treating of the Ruſſian commerce, former accounts are of little ſervice at this time, becauſe of its great improvements and variations. By the beſt and ſureſt information, the annual exports of Ruſſia at preſent amount to 4,000,000 of rubles; and her imports do not exceed 3,000,000; ſo that the balance of trade is yearly 225,000 l. ſterling in her favour. This calculation, however, is ſubject to ſuch uncertainties as time alone can remove, ariſing from Ruſſia's commercial connections with Great-Britain, from whom, about 14 years ago, ſhe gained the greateſt part of that balance. Great-Britain, however, has, within that time, given ſuch encouragement to her American colonies, and to the Scotch and Iriſh linen manufactures, that her imports from Ruſſia are greatly diminiſhed. On the other hand, the vaſt advantages which, by later treaties between England and Ruſſia, her imperial majeſty has been enabled to acquire upon the Caſpian ſea, and in the inland parts of Aſia, will probably more than counterbalance all the diminution which the Ruſſian exports to Great-Britain may have ſuffered.

Ruſſia's productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable; viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, ſail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, iſing-glaſs, linſeed-oil, pot-aſh, ſoap, feathers, train-oil, hogs briſtles, muſk, rhubarb, and other drugs; timber, and alſo raw-ſilk from China and Perſia.

Her foreign commerce is much encreaſed ſince her conqueſts from Sweden, eſpecially of Livonia and Ingria; and ſince the eſtabliſhing of her new emporium of Peterſburgh; whereby her naval intercourſe with Europe is made much more ſhort and eaſy.

Ruſſia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, ſilks, cotton, gold, &c. To Bochara, near the river Oxus, in Tartary, Ruſſia ſends her own merchandize, in return for Indian ſilks, curled lamb-ſkins, and ready money; and alſo from the annual fair at Samarcand: ſhe likewiſe trades to Perſia, by Aſtracan, croſs the Caſpian ſea, for raw and wrought ſilk.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Ruſſia had with the reſt of Europe; but it was ſubject to a long and tempeſtuous voyage. This town is about three Engliſh miles in length, and one in breadth: built all of wood, except the exchange, which is of ſtone. Notwithſtanding the decreaſe of the trade of Archangel, by building Peterſburgh, it ſtill exports a conſiderable quantity of merchandize.

The late and preſent empreſſes of Ruſſia, were ſo ſenſible of the benefits ariſing to commerce through peace, that they ſeem to have poſtponed other valuable intereſts to that conſideration; witneſs the ſacrifices made by the empreſs Elizabeth, to preſerve the tranquillity of the north, in ſettling the Swediſh ſucceſſion; and the moderation which her preſent majeſty obſerved in her ſon's claims upon Denmark for the duchy of Holſtein when her huſband died. This difference, however, if not prudently prevented, may, ſome time or other, kindle a general flame in the north, if not all over Europe.

CONSTITUTION, LAWS, AND DISTINCTIONS OF RANK. The conſtitution and laws of Ruſſia, like thoſe of other arbitrary governments, reſt in the breaſt of the ſovereign. The ſubjects, however, had ſome general rules to guide them, both in criminal and civil matters, which always took place, when no interpoſition of government happened

to ſet them aſide. The czar Alexis, who mounted the throne in 1645, drew up an imperfect code of laws: but he never could ſufficiently enforce them, being perpetually engaged in war, either foreign or domeſtic; ſo that they became in a manner uſeleſs or unknown. Even Peter the Great never could bring his ſubjects into that ſtate of civilization as to truſt them with any law but his own will. In matters of importance, ſuch as the trying and condemning his ſon to death, he generally appointed a commiſſion, with ſome perſon of diſtinction at its head, for trying them; but this was only to ſave the appearance of deſpotiſm; for the commiſſioners always pronounced judgment according to what they knew to be his ſentiments. The late empreſs, Elizabeth, made a law, but it only bound herſelf, that ſhe would ſuffer no capital puniſhments to be inflicted in her reign. Were not the fact undoubted, poſterity could not believe, that one of the moſt extenſive governments in the world could ſubſiſt in peace and tranquillity within itſelf, under ſuch an exception of juſtice. The truth is, the dreadful puniſhments incurred by delinquents, though not capital, were ſufficient to deter them. Upon the whole, the virtues of the Ruſſian ſovereigns, ſince Peter's time, have ſupplied the deficiency of their laws.

The Ruſſian monarchy is hereditary, but after a particular mode; for the ſenate and the great lords make themſelves judges of the proximity of blood in their ſovereigns; as may be ſeen in their hiſtory. The preſent empreſs was raiſed to the throne, by being wife to the emperor, and mother of his ſon; and ſhe has ſufficiently juſtified the partiality that has been ſhewn her, by the wiſdom, patriotiſm, and vigour of her government; but in nothing ſo much as in her care to give her ſubjects a new code of laws. With this view, in 1768, ſhe aſſembled deputies from all the diſtricts and provinces of her dominions, ſo as to form, in effect, a Ruſſian parliament. When they were met, they were preſented with inſtructions, which contained her ideas of diſtributive juſtice; and which do the higheſt honour to her political and perſonal virtues. The code which has been drawn up, has not yet been made public, at leaſt to the reſt of Europe; but there can be no doubt that it is highly worthy of its imperial patroneſs.

The diſtinctions of rank, form a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian conſtitution. The late empreſſes took the title of Autocratrix, which implies that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their antient nobility were divided into knezes, or knazeys, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns upon their own eſtates, till they were reduced by the czar; but they ſtill retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Thoſe titles, however, ſo often revived the ideas of their antient power, that the preſent and late empreſſes have introduced among their ſubjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other diſtinctions of nobility that are common to the reſt of Europe.

A ſenate, compoſed of the moſt reſpectable members of the empire, ſtill ſubſiſts in Ruſſia; but though the empreſs treats the inſtitution with the higheſt regard and deference, and ſubmits the greateſt concerns of her empire to their deliberation, yet they are no better than her privy council: and they ſeldom or never give her any advice, but ſuch as is conformable to her pleaſure.

REVENUE, ARMY, AND EXPENCES. Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly,

doubtedly, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially her preſent imperial majeſty, muſt have greatly added to their income, which can ſcarcely be reckoned at leſs than four millions ſterling annually. When the reader conſiders this ſum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, he will find it a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies maintained and paid by the late and preſent empreſs, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do I find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that in 1735, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the ſum total amounted to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to about 4 s. 6 d. ſterling.) This income was at that time ſufficient to maintain 339,500, as well ſea as land forces. The other expences, beſides the payment of the army and navy of her preſent majeſty, the number and diſcipline of which are at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, is very conſiderable. Her court is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants ſplendid; and the encouragement ſhe gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſts her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expences of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies; which are often neceſſary in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterprize undertaken by Peter the Great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in ſeizing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required that the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his exceſſive power. The clergy, however, are taxed in Ruſſia: but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon eſtates, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The Ruſſian armies are raiſed at little or no expence *, and while in their own country, ſubſiſted chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people, according to their internal valuation.

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient hiſtory and modern diſcoveries, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of the Ruſſian empire at preſent, were formerly rich and populous. The reader who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Aſia, may ſee the advantages of their ſituation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richeſt provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In later times, the Aſiatic part of Ruſſia bordered with Samarcand, in

* On my return (ſays a late traveller through Ruſſia) from Tobolſky to St. Peterſburgh, going into a houſe where I was to lodge, I found a father chained to a poſt in the middle of his family: by his cries, and the little regard his children paid to him, I imagined he was mad; but this was by no means the caſe. In Ruſſia, people, who are ſent to raiſe recruits, go through all the villages, and pitch upon the men proper for the ſervice, as butchers, in all other parts, go into the folds to mark the ſheep. This man's ſon had been ſelected for the ſervice, and made his eſcape without the father's knowledge; the father was made a priſoner in his own houſe; his children were his gaolers, and he was in daily expectation of receiving his ſentence. I was ſo much ſhocked with this account, and with the ſcene I beheld, that I was forced to ſeek another lodging immediately.

Tartary, once the capital, under Jenghis khan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire, than any mentioned by hiſtory; and nothing is more certain, than that the conqueſt of Ruſſia was among the laſt attempts made by the former of thoſe princes. We cannot, with the ſmalleſt degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the hiſtory of Ruſſia, higher than the introduction of Chriſtianity, which happened about the tenth century; when a princeſs of this country, called Olha, is ſaid to have been baptized in Conſtantinople, and refuſed the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimiſces, in marriage. This accounts for the Ruſſians adopting the Greek religion, and part of their alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, ſent prieſts to baptize the Ruſſians, who were for ſome time ſubject to the ſee of Conſtantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards reſigned all their authority over the Ruſſian church; and its biſhops erected themſelves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that till the year 1450, the princes of Ruſſia were but very little conſidered, being chiefly ſubjected by the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Iwan Baſilides, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod; from whom he is ſaid to have carried 300 cart loads of gold and ſilver.

His grandſon, the famous John Baſilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, ſubdued the kingdoms of Caſan and Aſtracan Tartary, in Aſia, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of ſome of his fineſt provinces, particularly Livonia and Eſthonia, to throw themſelves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the ſovereign of Ruſſia took the title of Welike Knez, i. e. great prince, great lord, or great chief; which the Chriſtian nations afterwards rendered by that of great duke. The title of Tzar, or as we call it, Czar, was added to that of the Ruſſian ſovereigns, but it ſeems to have been of Perſian or Aſiatic original; becauſe, at firſt, it was applied only to Caſan, Aſtracan, and the Aſian Siberia. Upon the death of John Baſilowitz, the Ruſſian ſucceſſion was filled up by a ſet of weak cruel princes, and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, according to Voltaire, whoſe information I prefer, as it ſeems to be the moſt authentic, aſſaſſinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and uſurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince, who had eſcaped from his murderers; and with the aſſiſtance of the Poles, and a conſiderable party (which every tyrant has againſt him) he drove out the uſurper, and ſeized the crown himſelf. The impoſture was diſcovered as ſoon as he came to the ſovereignty, becauſe the people were not pleaſed with him, and he was murdered. Three other falſe Demetrius's ſtarted up one after another.

Theſe impoſtures prove the deſpicable ſtate of ignorance in which the Ruſſians were immerged. Their country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes; but was at length delivered by the good ſenſe of the boyars, impelled by their deſpair, ſo late as the year 1613. The independency of Ruſſia was then on the point of being extinguiſhed. Uladiſlaus, ſon to Sigiſmund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was ſuch, that it produced a general rebellion of the Ruſſians, who drove the Poles out of Moſcow, where they had for ſome time defended themſelves with unexampled courage. Philaretes, archbiſhop of Roſtow, whoſe wife was deſcended of the antient ſovereigns of Ruſſia, had been ſent ambaſſador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Ruſ-

ſian

ſian tyrants; and there he was detained priſoner, under pretence, that his countrymen had rebelled againſt Uladiſlaus. The boyars met in a body; and ſuch was their veneration for Philaretes and his wife, whom the tyrant had ſhut up in a nunnery, that they elected their ſon, Michael, a youth of 15 years of age, to be their ſovereign. The father being exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, returned to Ruſſia; and being created patriarch by his ſon, he reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and ſucceſs. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladiſlaus upon the throne, and likewiſe the claims of a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, but ſubmitted to young Michael without any terms. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Ruſſia, occaſioned a war between thoſe two people, which gave Michael a kind of a breathing-time; and he made uſe of it for the benefit of his ſubjects. I find, that ſoon after the election of Michael, James I. of England ſent, at his invitation, Sir John Meyrick, as his ambaſſador to Ruſſia, upon ſome commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain ſum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predeceſſors. The Engliſh court, however, was ſo ignorant of the affairs of that country, tho' a Ruſſian company had been then eſtabliſhed at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of Great duke and lord of Ruſſia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which ſhews him to have been not only well acquainted with the intereſts of his own ſubjects, but the laws and uſages of nations. Before we take leave of Michael, who ſurvived his father, I am to mention the modes of the czar's nuptials, which I could not introduce into the miſcellaneous cuſtoms of their ſubjects, and which are as follow. His czariſh majeſty's intention to marry being known, the moſt celebrated beauties of his dominions were ſent for to court, and there entertained. They were viſited by the czar, and the moſt magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by ſending her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The reſt of the candidates were then diſmiſſed to their ſeveral homes, with ſuitable preſents. The name of the lady's father, who pleaſed Michael, was Streſchnen; and he was ploughing his own farm, when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexis ſucceeded his father Michael, and was married in the ſame manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolenſko, Kiow, and the Ukraine; but was unfortunate in the wars with the Swedes. When the grand ſignior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded ſome poſſeſſions from him in the Ukraine, his anſwer was, "that he ſcorned to ſubmit to a Mahometan dog, and that his ſcymitar was as good as the grand ſignior's ſabre." He attempted to draw up a code of laws for the civil government of his ſubjects, which is ſaid to be ſtill in being. He cultivated a polite correſpondence with the other powers of Europe; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered his ambaſſadors not to kiſs the pope's toe. He ſubdued a chief of the Don Coſſacs, named Stenko Raſin, who endeavoured to make himſelf king of Aſtracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and ſilk manufactures into his dominions: and inſtead of putting to death or enſlaving his Lithuanian, Poliſh, and Tartar priſoners, he ſent them to people the banks of the Wolga

and the Kama. He died ſuddenly, at the age of 46, in the beginning of the year 1675, after ſhewing himſelf worthy of being father to Peter the Great.

Alexis left behind him three ſons and a daughter, who was a woman of great intrigue and ſpirit. The names of the ſons were Theodore, Iwan or John, and Peter, who was by a ſecond marriage. Theodore mounted the throne, and ſhewed excellent diſpoſitions for the improvement of his ſubjects; but his bodily infirmities prevented him from carrying them into execution. He died without any iſſue. His brother Iwan, being almoſt blind and dumb, and otherwiſe diſtempered, Theodore, before his death, named his younger brother, Peter, to the ſovereignty; though then only 10 years of age. This deſtination was diſpleaſing to the ambitious princeſs Sophia; and ſhe found means to excite a horrible ſedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the ſtanding army of Ruſſia. Their exceſſes ſurpaſſed all deſcription; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birthright; and exerciſed the government herſelf, with the greateſt ſeverity and inhumanity; for all the Ruſſian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom ſhe ſuppoſed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The inſtances given by Voltaire, of her inhuman adminiſtration, are ſhocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint ſovereigns, and their ſiſter their aſſociate and co-regent. Her adminiſtration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durſt ſhe venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other inſurgents. Finding this debility in her own perſon, ſhe intended to have married prince Baſil Galitzin, who is ſaid to have been a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and ſome learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter was now about 17 years of age, and aſſerted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moſcow; and upon Peter's publiſhing aloud, that a conſpiracy had been formed by his ſiſter to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or deſtroyed Sophia's party, and forced herſelf to retire to a monaſtery. Galitzin's life was ſpared, but his great eſtate was confiſcated; and the following curious ſentence was pronounced as his puniſhment, "Thou art commanded by the moſt clement czar, to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majeſty, out of his extreme goodneſs, allows thee three pence per day for thy ſubſiſtence." Upon the death of Iwan, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone.

It far exceeds the bounds preſcribed in this work, to give even a ſummary detail of this great prince's actions. They may be collected from the hiſtories of the northern nations, Poland, Germany, Sweden, and other countries; ſome of which I have already exhibited, as I intend to do the reſt. All therefore that is neceſſary in this place, is to give a general view of his power, and the vaſt reformation he introduced into his dominions.

Peter, towards the end of the laſt century, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealouſy of his ſiſter, aſſociated himſelf with Germans and Dutch; the former for the ſake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and the latter, for their ſkill in navigation, which he practiſed himſelf. His inclinations for the arts were encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmonteſe; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, diſciplined the czar's own regiment, conſiſting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raiſed a regiment of 12,000, among

among whom he introduced the French and German exercises of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolences of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He set out as an attendant upon his own ambassadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inserted here. By working as a common ship-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation; and through the excellent discipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia; and at last he even exterminated, all but two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land; and the many defeats which he received, especially by Charles XII. at Narva, seemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he lost rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendship he shewed to Augustus, king of Poland, his ally, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank, distinct from merit; and he at last married, by the name of Catherine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier; because, after long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans, and to assist his counsels. Catherine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a common soldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which succeeded one another after the decisive victory at Pultowa over Charles XII. were not the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity, as I have already mentioned, to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences: and, upon the whole, he made such acquisitions of dominion, even in Europe itself, that he may be said at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the most powerful prince of his age.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who was called the czarewitz, and who marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alledged, into some dangerous practices against his person and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter was, we can say nothing as to the justice of the charge. It was, undoubtedly, his will, that the young prince should be found guilty; but he died, as is said, of a fever, before his sentence was put into execution, in 1722. Peter then ordered his wife Catherine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be recognized as his successor: which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II. a minor, son to the czarewitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. Peter died of the small-pox in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished; and the duke of Holstein, son to his eldest daughter, was,

by the deſtination of the late empreſs, entitled to the crown: but the Ruſſians, for political reaſons, filled their throne with Anne, ducheſs of Courland, ſecond daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldeſt brother; though her eldeſt ſiſter, the ducheſs of Mecklenburgh, was alive. Her reign was proſperous and glorious; and though ſhe accepted of the crown under limitations that were derogatory to her dignity, yet ſhe broke them all, aſſerted the prerogative of her anceſtors, and puniſhed the aſpiring Dolgoruki family, who had impoſed upon her the limitations, that they themſelves might govern. She raiſed her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland, and was obliged to give way to many ſevere executions on his account. Upon her death, in 1740, John, the ſon of her niece, the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric, of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel, was, by her will, entitled to the ſucceſſion: but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be adminiſtrator of the empire during his nonage. This deſtination was diſagreeable to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh and her huſband, and unpopular among the Ruſſians. Count Munich was employed by the princeſs of Mecklenburgh to arreſt Biron; who was tried and condemned to die, but was ſent in exile to Siberia.

The adminiſtration of the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburgh and her huſband, was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of their German connections, diſagreeable not only to the Ruſſians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithſtanding a proſperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catherine, to Peter the Great, formed ſuch a party, that in one night's time ſhe was declared and proclaimed empreſs of the Ruſſias; and the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, her huſband, and ſon, were made priſoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be ſaid to have been more glorious than that of any of her predeceſſors, her father excepted. She aboliſhed, as has been already hinted, capital puniſhments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation till her time unknown in Ruſſia: but at the ſame time ſhe puniſhed the counts Munich and Oſterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late adminiſtration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden; and ſettled, as we have already ſeen, the ſucceſſion to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the moſt equitable foundation. Having glorioufly finiſhed a war, which had been ſtirred up againſt her, with Sweden, ſhe replaced the natural order of ſucceſſion in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, who was deſcended from her eldeſt ſiſter, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand duke of Ruſſia; and ſoon after her acceſſion to the throne, ſhe called him to her court; where he renounced the ſucceſſion to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princeſs of Anhalt-Zerbſt, by whom he had a ſon, who is now heir to the Ruſſian empire.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great-Britain, at the expence of a large ſubſidy; but many political, and ſome, as is ſaid, private reaſons, determined her to take part with the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Pruſſia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the ſucceſs of the war, which was in diſfavour of Pruſſia, notwithſtanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conqueſts were ſuch, as portended the entire deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which was ſaved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth

Elizabeth was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand prince of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein Gottorp: a prince, whoſe conduct has been variouſly repreſented. He mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of his Pruſſian majeſty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whoſe principles and practices he ſeems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have ſurmounted the effects of thoſe peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Ruſſia; but it is ſaid he aimed at reformations in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durſt not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. His memory has been likewiſe accuſed of certain domeſtic infidelities, which are too provoking for a ſpirited princeſs to bear. Whatever there may be in thoſe ſuggeſtions, it is certain that an univerſal conſpiracy was formed againſt him, and that he ſcarcely knew an interval between the loſs of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived while under an ignominious confinement. That his conduct with regard to Pruſſia, was not the ſole cauſe of his depoſition, ſeems pretty evident from the meaſures of his ſucceſſor, who was his own wife, and now reigns by the title of Catherine III. That princeſs, with regard to Pruſſia, trod in her huſband's ſteps, and now follows the plan he chalked out. The moſt remarkable domeſtic occurrence of her reign hitherto, is the death of prince Iwan, ſon to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, and, while he was in his cradle, emperor of Ruſſia. That prince loſt his life in an ill-concerted conſpiracy, which had been formed by ſome private officers to raiſe him to the throne.

As the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Ruſſia, her preſent imperial majeſty took a great concern in raiſing that king to the throne, and in ſecuring the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and proteſtant ſubjects of the Poliſh republic. The umbrage which her armies gave to the Roman-catholic Poles, by their reſidence in Poland, produced firſt a civil war, and then confederacies againſt all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a ſcene of blood and confuſion. The Ottoman court, who had been long waiting for ſuch an opportunity, availed itſelf of the occaſion; they impriſoned, contrary to the law of nations, the Ruſſian miniſter at Conſtantinople, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched 500,000 troops to the confines of Poland and Ruſſia.

Hoſtilities are now begun between theſe rival and mighty empires. The Ruſſian arms have been victorious by ſea and land, and the Turkiſh greatneſs has received a ſhock which ſeems to threaten an abridgement, if not the total diſſolution of their power in Europe. In this quarrel the other nations of Europe have remained neutral. How far the riſing greatneſs of the Ruſſians may be conſiſtent with the commercial intereſt of England, and the balance of power eſtabliſhed at the expence of ſo much blood and treaſure, is a queſtion which we ſhall leave to the ſpeculation of politicians *.

* Catharine II. empreſs of all the Ruſſias, princeſs of Anhalt Zerbſt, was born in 1729, married 1745, to the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, and aſcended the throne of Ruſſia upon the depoſition and death of her huſband in 1762. Her iſſue by the late emperor is, Paul Petrowitz, great duke of Ruſſia, alſo duke of Holſtein Gottorp, born in 1754.

SCOTLAND, AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

I Shall, according to the general plan I have laid down, treat of the iſlands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the deſcription of that antient kingdom; and to avoid prolixity, I ſhall comprehend under one head, thoſe of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The iſlands of Shetland lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude; and are part of the ſhire of Orkney.

The Orcades, or Orkney iſlands, lie north of Dungſbyhead, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by Pentland Firth.

The Hebrides, or weſtern iſles, are very numerous, and ſome of them large; ſituated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of thoſe iſlands, the air being keen, piercing, and ſalubrious; ſo that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney iſlands, they ſee to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the ſummer months, they have frequent communications, both for buſineſs and curioſity, with each other, and with the continent: the reſt of the year, however, they are almoſt inacceſſible, through fogs, darkneſs and ſtorms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fiſherman was impriſoned in May, for publiſhing the account of the prince and princeſs of Orange being raiſed to the throne of England the preceding November; and, probably, would have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ſhip.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largeſt of the Shetland iſlands, which are 46 in number, (though many of them are uninhabited) is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the iſland not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery. On this iſland the Dutch begin to fiſh for herrings at Midſummer, and their fiſhing ſeaſon laſts ſix months.

The largeſt of the Orkney iſlands, which are about 30 in number, (though ſeveral of them are unpeopled) is called Pomona. Its length is 24 miles, and its breadth, in ſome places, 9. It contains 9 pariſh churches, and 4 excellent harbours.

The iſle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is 24 miles long, and, in ſome places, almoſt as broad. It contains 2 pariſhes, and a caſtle, called Duart, which is the chief place on the iſland. The other principal weſtern iſlands are, Lewis, or Harries, (for they both form but one iſland) which belongs to the ſhire of Roſs, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth. Sky, belonging to the ſhire of Inverneſs, is 40 miles long, and, in ſome places, 30 broad; fruitful, and well peopled. Bute, which is about 10 miles long, and 3 or 4 broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothſay, is likewiſe a royal burgh; and the iſlands of Bute and Arran, form the ſhire of Bute. The iſles of Ila and Jura, are part of Argyleſhire, but they have no towns worthy notice. North Wiſt contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous

mous for herring-fishing. I shall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides islands, which are at present of small importance, either to the public or the proprietors; though, probably, they may, in future times, be of great consequence to both, by the very improveable fisheries upon their coasts. I cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous isle of Iona, once the seat and sanctuary of western learning, and the burying place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is still famous for its reliques of sanctimonious antiquity, as shall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to describe the island of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reason that I can discover, but because it is the remotest of all the north-west islands, and very difficult of access; for it does not contain above 35 families, all of which are protestant, and know very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE AND RELIGION. } It is not to be imagined, that the inhabitants of the islands belonging to Scotland can be so minutely described here, as they have been by some other authors; not so much on account of their importance, as their curiosity. Those of Shetland and Orkney were formerly subject to the crown of Denmark, who pledged them, and in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland. The isles of Shetland and Orkney, form a stewarty, or shire, which sends a member to parliament. At present, the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland, only, perhaps, they are more honest and religious. Men of fortune there, have improved their estates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families all the luxuries and elegancies that are to be found at the tables of their English and Scotch neighbours. They build their dwelling and other houses, in the most fashionable taste; and are remarkable for the fineness of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheese, fish, sea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geese; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, so as to give it a vinous quality. In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their vast intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney islands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians, already described, in seizing the nests of sea-fowls, who build in the most frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preserves them from many diseases known to luxury. They cure the scurvy and the jaundice, to which they are subject, with the powder of snail-shells, and scurvy-grass, of which they have plenty. Their religion is protestant, according to the discipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil institutions are much the same with those of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned as to the population of those three divisions of islands. We have the most undoubted evidences of history, that about 400 years ago they were much more populous than they are now; for the Hebrides themselves were known often to send 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At present, their numbers are said not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are cloathed, and live like the Scotch Highlanders, who shall hereafter be described. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; but with this difference, that as the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands, perhaps the

descendents

deſcendents of the antient Caledonians, in a few years, will be diſcernible only in the Hebrides.

Thoſe iſlands alone retain the antient uſages of the Celts, as deſcribed by the oldeſt and beſt authors; but with a ſtrong tincture of the feudal conſtitution. Their ſhanachies or ſtory-tellers ſupply the place of the antient bards, ſo famous in hiſtory; and are the hiſtorians, or rather the genealogiſts, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewiſe attended, when he appears abroad, with his muſician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dreſt in the manner, but more ſumptuouſly than the Engliſh minſtrels of former times *. Notwithſtanding the contempt into which that muſic is fallen, it is almoſt incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among thoſe iſlanders, ſo late as the beginning of the preſent century. They had regular colleges and profeſſors, and the ſtudents took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, ſome of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now aboliſhed. The inhabitants, however, ſtill preſerve the moſt profound reſpect and affection for their ſeveral chieftains, notwithſtanding all the pains that have been taken by the Britiſh legiſlature to break thoſe connections, which experience has ſhewn to be ſo dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders, already deſcribed; though they certainly fare better, for they have oatmeal, plenty of fiſh and fowl, cheeſe, buttermilk, and whey; and, when they chuſe it, plenty of mutton, beef, goat, kid, and veniſon. They indulge themſelves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn, which is an enemy to induſtry, and indeed to domeſtic and perſonal cleanlineſs. The agility of both ſexes in the exerciſes of the field, and in dancing to their favourite muſic, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this ſubject, ſhould omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of the ſecond ſight. It would be equally abſurd to attempt to diſprove the reality of the inſtances of this kind that have been brought by creditable authors, as to admit all that has been ſaid upon the ſubject. The adepts of the ſecond-ſight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather preſentations, either really or typically, which ſwim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compaſs of 24 or 48 hours. I do not, however, from the beſt information, obſerve that any two of thoſe adepts agree as to the manner and forms of thoſe revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth ſeems to be, that thoſe iſlanders, by indulging themſelves in lazy habits, acquire viſionary ideas, and over-heat their imaginations, till they are preſented with thoſe phantaſms, which they miſtake for fatidical manifeſtations. They inſtantly begin to prophecy; and it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that amidſt many thouſands of predictions, ſome did not happen to be fulfilled; and theſe being well atteſted, gave a ſanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides being the moſt weſterly iſlands where the Celts ſettled, their language muſt remain there in its greateſt purity. This opinion, though very plauſible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as cuſtoms, are

* See Percy's Reliques of antient Engliſh Poetry, in 3 vols.

are there found; but a vaſt intercourſe which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whoſe language is mixed with the Sclavonian and Teutonic, which laſt has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; ſo that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erſe, which was ſpoken by their neighbours in Lochaber, and the oppoſite coaſts of Scotland, the undoubted deſcendents of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion profeſſed in the Hebrides, is chiefly preſbyterian, as eſtabliſhed in the church of Scotland; but popery and ignorance ſtill prevail among ſome of the iſlanders, whilſt ſuperſtitious practices and cuſtoms ſeem to be almoſt grafted in their nature.

SOIL, MINES AND QUARRIES.] Though it is not in the power of natural philoſophy to account for the reaſon, yet it is certain that the ſoil both of the northern and weſtern iſlands belonging to Scotland, has ſuffered an amazing alteration. It is evident to the eye-ſight, that many of thoſe iſlands have been the habitations of the Druids, whoſe temples are ſtill viſible in moſt of them; and thoſe temples were ſurrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The ſtumps of former trees, however, are diſcernible, as are many veſtiges of grandeur, even ſince the admiſſion of the Chriſtian religion; which prove the decreaſe of the riches, power, and population, of the inhabitants. Experience daily ſhews, that if the ſoil of the northern and weſtern iſlands till of late were barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for ſuch ſpots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-ſtuff, more than ſufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and ſilver mines; marl, ſlate, freeſtone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon thoſe iſlands. They are not deſtitute of fine freſh water; and lakes, and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the ſame time it muſt be owned, that the preſent face of the ſoil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe are all in their infancy in thoſe iſlands. The reader can eaſily ſuppoſe, that their ſtaple commodities conſiſt of fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which are the beſt in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to thoſe of the Dutch. They carry on likewiſe a conſiderable trade in down and feathers; and their ſheep affords them wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths; and even the linen manufacture makes no ſmall progreſs in thoſe iſlands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are diſpoſed of in ſale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they ſalt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and induſtry, with ſome portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render thoſe iſlands at once ornamental and beneficial to their mother country, as well as to their inhabitants.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Little can be ſaid on this head, that is peculiar to thoſe iſlands. In the countries already deſcribed, mention has been made of moſt of the birds and fiſhes that have been diſcovered here; only it is thought that they contain a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, of more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elſewhere. The Shetland iſles are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are incredibly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets of London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious or wealthy. The

coasts of those islands, till within these 20 years, seemed, however, to have been created not for the inhabitants, but for strangers. The latter furnish the former with wines, strong liquors, spice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. In the Shetland isles 3000 busses have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fishery, besides those fitted out by the Hamburghers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. Those islands exhibit many pregnant proofs, in their churches, the vestiges of old forts, and other buildings both sacred and civil, of what I have already observed, that they were formerly more populous than they are now. The use and construction of some of those works are not easily accounted for at present. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the western islands, is a kind of a hermitage, cut out of a stone called a dwarf-stone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, big enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endless to recount the various vestiges of the druidical temples remaining in those islands, some of which have required prodigious labour, and are stupendous erections, of the same nature as the famous Stonehenge near Salisbury, which I shall have occasion to describe: others seem to be memorials of particular persons, or actions, consisting of one large stone standing upright; some of them have been sculptured, and others have served as sepulchres, and are composed of stones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in those islands; and the monuments of Danish and Norwegian fortifications might employ an able antiquary to describe. The gigantic bones found in many burial places here, give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of far larger size than the present. It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine silver fibulæ or clasps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with those parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by 14 pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stones, embossed, and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland isles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purposes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated isle of Jona, called St. Columb-Kill. We shall not enter into the history or origin of the religious erections upon this island; it is sufficient to say, that it seems to have served as a sanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were desolated by barbarism. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the sanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It con-

tains the bodies of some Scotch, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaælic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninscribed. The steeple is large, the cupola 21 feet square, the doors and windows are curiously carved, and the altar is of the finest marble. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies that are discernible upon this island, and give countenance to the well-known observation, that when learning was extinct in the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in those islands.

The islands belonging to Scotland, contain likewise some natural curiosities peculiar to themselves; the phaseoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as is supposed, from the West-Indies, by the westerly winds, which often force ashore many curious shells and marine productions, highly esteemed by naturalists. In the parish of Harn, a large piece of stag's horn, was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce surprizing phenomena, which the natives believe to be supernatural.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY. } See Scotland.

SCOTLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	300	between	54 and 59 north latitude.
Breadth	150		1 and 6 west longitude.

NAME.] THERE can be little doubt that the Scots were not the original inhabitants of this kingdom, which they invaded about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and that the word Scot, is no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythian; being originally from that immense country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Escotia; by the French, Escosse; by the Scots, Germans, and English, Scotland.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 miles, is bounded on the north, east, and west, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Irish seas, or more properly, the Atlantic ocean; and on the south by England, from which, however, it has no natural boundary, if we except the Solway Firth near Carlisle, on the west; and the mouth of the Tweed at Berwick, on the east. Antiently, in the time of the Romans, it extended much further; being bounded by a wall, raised by that people, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and under the Norman kings of England, it included the three northern counties of Northumberland, Westmorland, and Cumberland.

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the counties south of the Firth of Forth; the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and those to the north of the same river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the antient national division; but some modern writers, with less geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners and customs of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or shires, are allotted to the southern division, and 15 to the northern; and those counties are subdivided into sherifdoms, stewarties, and bailiwicks, according to the antient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.	Sherifdoms and other subdivifions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh —	Mid-Lothian —	EDINBURGH, N.lat. 56. W. lon. 3. Muffelburg, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington	Eaft-Lothian —	Dunbar, Haddington, and North-Berwick.
3. Merfe, antiently Berwick *	The Merches, and Lauderdale —	Duns, and Lauder.
4. Roxborough	Tiviotdale, Lidfdale, Eſkdale and Euſdale	Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs.
5. Selkirk —	Ettrick Foreſt —	Selkirk.
6. Peebles —	Tweedale —	Peebles.
7. Lanerk —	Clydſdale ——	Glaſgow. N. lat. 55-52. W. lon. 4-5. Hamilton, Lanerk, & Ruthergler.
8. Dumfries —	Nithſdale, Annandale	Dumfries, Annand.
9. Wigtown	Galloway, Weſt Part	Wigtown, Stanraer, & Whitehorn.
10. Kirkcudbright —	Galloway, Eaſt Part	Kirkudbright
11. Air —	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham —	Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybole, Stewarton, and Saltcots.
12. Dumbarton	Lenox — —	Dumbarton.
13. Bute and 14. Cathneſs	Bute, Arran, and Cathneſs —	Rothſay. Wick, N. lat. 58-40. and Thurſo.
15. Renfrew	Renfrew ——	Renfrew, Paiſley, Greenock, and Port-Glaſgow.
16. Stirling	Stirling ——	Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow	Weſt Lothian —	Linlithgow, Burroughſtonneſs, and Queenſferry.
18. Argyle —	Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with Part of the Weſtern Iſles, particularly Iſla, Jura, Mull, Wiſt, Terif, Col, and Liſmore — —	Inverary, Dunſtaffnag, Killonmer, and Campbletown.
19. Perth —	Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Glenſhield, and Raynork — —	Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.

* Berwick, on the north ſide of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itſelf, in a political ſenſe diſtinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shires.	Sherifdoms and other subdivifions.	Chief Towns.
20. Clacmanan & 21. Kinrofs	Fife Part —	Culros, Clacmanan, Aloway and Kinrofs.
22. Fife —	Fife ——	St. Andrews, Couper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt-Iſland, Dumfermlin, Dyſart, Anſtruther and Aberdour.
23. Forfar —	Forfar, Angus —	Montroſe, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth, and Brechin.
24. Kincardin —	Merns — — —	Bervie, Stonhive and Kinkardin.
25. Aberdeen —	Mar, Buchan, Garioch and Strathbogie —	Old Aberdeen, N. lat. 57-22. W. lon. 1-40. New Aberdeen, Fraſerſburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Inverurie, Strathbogie, and Old Meldrum.
26. Bamff —	Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Bucan	Bamff and Cullen.
27. Elgin —	Murray & Strathſpey	Elgin and Forres.
28. Nairne and 29. Cromartie	Weſtern Part of Murray and Cromartie	Nairne, Cromartie.
30. Inverneſs —	Aird, Strathglaſs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, & Glenmoriſon —	Inverneſs, Inverlochy, Fort Auguſtus, Beaulieu.
31. Roſs —	Eaſter and Weſter Roſs, Iſle of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarran, Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald —	Taine, Dingwall, Fortroſe, Roſemarkie, and New Kelſo.
32. Sutherland	Strathnaver and Sutherland —	Strathy and Dornoch.
33. Orkney —	Iſles of Orkney and Shetland —	Kirkwall, N. lat. 59-45. W. lon. 3. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. lat. 61.

In all, thirty-three ſhires, which chuſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great-Britain; Bute and Cathneſs chuſing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmanan and Kinroſs.

The royal Boroughs which chuſe repreſentatives are,

Edinburgh — —	1	Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queensferry, Culroſs, and Sterling	1
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tayne	1	Glaſgow, Renfrew, Ruther-glen, and Dumbarton	1
Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne, and Forres —	1	Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick, Lawder, and Jedburgh —	1
Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverury, and Kintore	1	Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk —	1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Aberbrothe, and Brechin	1	Dumfries, Sanquehar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kirkcudbright —	1
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrews	1	Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranrawer, and Whitehorn	1
Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther Eaſt and Weſt, and Pittenweem —	1	Air, Irwin, Rothſay, Campbeltown, and Inverary	1
Dyſert, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Iſland —	1		

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] The climate all over Scotland is, from the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes, for the moſt part, agreeable and healthy, exempted from the inconveniences that attend the northern countries already deſcribed, and even thoſe of a more ſoutherly ſituation. The air is, in general, moiſt and temperate; but in the neighbourhood of ſome high mountains, which are covered with eternal ſnow, it is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. In the northern parts day-light, at Midſummer, laſts 18 hours and 5 minutes; and the day and night in winter, are in the ſame proportion. Late experience has proved, that induſtry, and ſkilful agriculture, can render the ſoil of Scotland, in ſundry parts, as fruitful as that of England; though, perhaps, many of its vegetable and hortulane productions may not come ſo ſoon to maturity. The inequality of the ſoil of Scotland is ſurprizing; and cannot be accounted for by natural or apparent cauſes; ſome of the northern provinces being more fruitful and more early in their products than the ſouthern: but thoſe inequalities ſeem to be in common to all countries. The water of Scotland is pure, light, and eaſy to the ſtomach; and ſome mineral waters have been diſcovered.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian-hills, which run from eaſt to weſt, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleſhire, almoſt the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-Hills, runs through Lothian and joins thoſe of Tweedale. A third called Lammer-Muir, riſes near the eaſtern coaſt, and runs weſtward through the Merſe. Beſides thoſe continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Teviot-Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, ſometimes go by the Celtic word Laws. Many of them are ſtupendouſly high, and of beautiful forms; but too numerous to be particularized here.

RIVERS, BAYS, AND LAKES.] The largeſt river in Scotland is the Forth, which riſes in Monteith near Callendar, and paſſing by Stirling, after deſcribing a number of beautiful meanders, diſcharges itſelf near Edinburgh into that arm of the German ſea, to which it gives the name of Firth or Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which iſſues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and running ſouth-eaſt, paſſes the town of

Perth, and falls into the ſea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the moſt rapid river in Scotland, iſſues from a lake of the ſame name in Badenoch, and, running from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, falls into the ſea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from weſt to eaſt, and diſembogue themſelves at Aberdeen. The Tweed riſes on the borders of Lanerkſhire, and, after many beautiful ſerpentine turnings, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Berwick, where it ſerves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eaſtern ſide. The Clyde is a large river on the weſt of Scotland, has its riſe in Annandale, runs north-weſt through the valley of that name, and after paſſing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Firth of Clyde, oppoſite to the iſle of Bute. Beſides thoſe capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior ſort, well provided with ſalmon, trout, and other fiſhes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of thoſe rivers go by the name of Eſk, which is the old Celtic name for water. One of the greateſt improvements for inland navigation that has been attempted in Great-Britain, is now (1771) carrying on at a very conſiderable expence, by a ſociety of public ſpirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication will be opened between the eaſt and weſt ſeas, to the immenſe advantage of the whole kingdom, as muſt be evident to every perſon who ſhall throw his eye upon the map of Scotland.

The lakes of Scotland (there called Lochs) are too many to be particularly deſcribed. Thoſe called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Lochneſs, Loch Au, and one or two more, preſent us with ſuch pictureſque ſcenes as are not matched in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of thoſe lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of freſh-water fiſh. The Scots ſometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the ſea, for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long, and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings; the Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of ſwans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as ſome think, to the plant olorina, which grows in its waters, with a ſtrait ſtalk and a cluſter of ſeeds at the top. Near Lochneſs is a hill almoſt two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold freſh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and never freezes; whereas but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The antient province of Lochaber, receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the antient Caledonians, the genuine deſcendents of the Celts, were probably enabled to preſerve themſelves independent upon, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders. Beſides theſe rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coaſts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, and navigable bays or arms of the ſea; as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtoun Bay; ſometimes they are called Firths, as the Solway Firth, which ſeparates Scotland from England on the weſt; the Firth of Forth, Murray Firth, and thoſe of Cromarty and Dornoch.

Forests.] The face of Scotland, even where it is moſt uninviting, preſents us with the moſt uncontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepeſt moſſes, or moraſſes, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine have a preſerving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been diſcovered in thoſe moſſes. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian Foreſt,

the remains of which are now thought to be Etrick Wood, in the ſouth of Scotland, famous in antiquity for its being the harbour of the Caledonian wild boars; but ſuch an animal is not now to be ſeen in Scotland. Several woods, however, ſtill remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the uſe of furnaces and founderies; but lying at a great diſtance from water-carriage, though the work ſucceeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir-trees grow in great perfection almoſt all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where ſome woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth, but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at preſent boaſt of its gold mines, yet, it is certain, that it contains ſuch, or at leaſt that Scotland afforded a conſiderable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor; and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered diſhes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were preſented to the gueſts by way of deſſert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter and in the minority of his grandſon, drove thoſe foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which, ſince that time, have never been recovered. Some ſmall pieces of gold have been found in thoſe parts waſhed down by the floods. It likewiſe appears by the public records, that thoſe beautiful coins ſtruck by James V. called bonnet pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the ſame metal.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead-mines, which are ſaid to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of ſilver; but we know of no ſilver-mines that are worked at preſent. Some copper-mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the eaſt, weſt, and northern counties, produce excellent coals of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vaſt emolument of the public. Lime-ſtone is here in great plenty, as is free-ſtone; ſo that the houſes of the better ſort are conſtructed of the moſt beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants in many places in Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from ſupplying that defect by plantations of wood; and the peat-moſſes being in many parts, of the north eſpecially, almoſt exhauſted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel; however the taſte for plantations of all kinds, that now prevails, will ſoon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; allum-mines have been found in Bamffſhire; chryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones, which admit of the fineſt poliſh for ſeals, are found in many parts of Scotland; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potters-clay, and fullers earth. The ſtones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made uſe of by the Caledonians and antient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and ſtones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to taſte the ſweets, in their founderies and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] I have already obſerved that the ſoil of Scotland may be rendered

dered in many parts as fruitful as that of England. Some large tracts of the low countries at preſent exceed in value Engliſh eſtates of the ſame extent, becauſe they are far leſs exhauſted and worn out than thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the iſland; and agriculture is now perhaps as well underſtood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very conſiderable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants of Glaſgow, who are the life and ſoul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing new branches of commerce, are no leſs attentive to the progreſs of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole iſland in general, the moſt eſſential ſervice. The active genius of theſe people extends even to moors, rocks, and marſhes, which being hitherto reckoned uſeleſs, were conſequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain ſpecies of grain or timber, for which the ſoil is beſt adapted.

But the fruits of ſkill and induſtry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly underſtood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500l. per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverſe of this, however, may be obſerved, of a very conſiderable part of Scotland, which ſtill remains in a ſtate of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real intereſt, refuſe to grant ſuch leaſes as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In ſuch places, the huſbandmen barely exiſt upon the gleanings of a ſcanty farm, ſeldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. the cattle are lean and ſmall, the houſes mean beyond expreſſion, and the face of the country exhibits the moſt deplorable marks of poverty and oppreſſion. Indeed, from a miſtaken notion of the landed people in general, the greateſt part of the kingdom lies naked and expoſed, for want of ſuch hedge-rows, and planting, as adorn the country of England. They conſider hedges as uſeleſs and cumberſome, as occupying more room than what they call ſtone encloſures, which except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, huddled up with looſe ſtones, without lime or mortar, which yields a bleak and mean appearance.

The ſoil of Scotland in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and paſturage. In the ſouthern counties the fineſt garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, fall little, if at all, ſhort of thoſe in England; and the ſame may be ſaid of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of ſalubrious and pleaſant-taſted berries; though it muſt be owned, that many extenſive tracts are covered with a ſtrong heath. The ſea-coaſt produces the alga-marina, dulſe, or duliſh, a moſt wholeſome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants.

The fiſhes on the coaſt of Scotland are much the ſame with thoſe of the iſlands and countries already deſcribed; but the Scots have improved in their fiſheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture, for ſocieties have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and bids fair to emulate, if not to excel, the Dutch themſelves, in curing, as well as catching, their fiſh. In former times, the Scots ſeldom ventured to fiſh above a league's diſtance from the land, but

they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and ſucceſsfully as any of their neighbours. Their ſalmons, which they can ſend more early, when prepared, to the Levant and ſouthern markets than the Engliſh or Iriſh can, are of great ſervice to the nation, as the returns are generally made in ſpecie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domeſtic animals that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their fleſh is not comparable to Engliſh veniſon. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; as are the grouſe and heath cock, which is a moſt delicious bird, as likewiſe are the capperkaily, and the tarmacan, which is of the pheaſant kind: but thoſe birds are ſcarce even in the Highlands, and when diſcovered are very ſhy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and ſheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the ſouth, are almoſt incredible, and formerly brought large ſums into the country; the black cattle eſpecially, which, when fattened on the ſouthern paſtures, are reckoned ſuperior to Engliſh beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the vaſt increaſe of manufacturers, whoſe demands for butchers meat muſt leſſen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a ſufficient ſtock, by proper methods, may be raiſed to ſupply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horſes, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent; but the truth is, notwithſtanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and ſoil of Scotland were unfavourable to that noble animal, for they diminiſhed both in ſize and ſpirit; ſo that about the time of the union, few horſes, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce the Engliſh and foreign breeds, and much pains have been taken for providing them with proper foods and management, but with what ſucceſs time alone can diſcover.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of ſouls. This calculation reſts merely upon vague conjecture, as I know of no attempt that has been made to ſupport even its probability. If we form an eſtimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that ſome public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their ſeveral pariſhes. The only records at preſent that can be appealed to, are thoſe of the army; and, by the beſt information, they make the number of ſoldiers furniſhed by Scotland in the late war, which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to obſerve, that above 60,000 of theſe were raiſed in the iſlands and Highlands, which form by far the leaſt populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions and a half, as no country in the world, excluſive of the army, ſends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we conſult the moſt ancient and creditable hiſtories, the population of Scotland, in the 13th century, muſt have been exceſſive, as it afforded ſo many thouſands to fall

fall by the ſwords of the Engliſh, without any ſenſible decreaſe (ſo far as I can find) of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of a characteriſtical feature, that of high cheek bones, reigns in their faces; lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring ſpirit was chiefly owing to their laws of ſucceſſion, which inveſted the elder brother as head of the family with the inheritance, and left but a very ſcanty portion for the other ſons. This obliged the latter to ſeek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native ſoil than the Scots have in general. It is true, this diſparity of fortune among the ſons of one family prevails in England likewiſe; but the reſources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to thoſe of a country ſo narrow, and ſo little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may eaſily perceive, that the ridiculous family pride which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguiſhed in Scotland, was owing to the feudal inſtitutions which reigned there in all their horrors of blood and barbarity. Their family differences, eſpecially the Highlanders, familiarized them to blood and ſlaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a matter of triumph. Theſe paſſions did not live in the breaſts of the common people only, for they were authoriſed and cheriſhed by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had ſeen the world, were converſant in the courts of Europe, maſters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and ſocial life. Their kings, excepting ſome of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were conſidered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war, for in time of peace their civil authority was ſo little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the moſt civilized parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the ſovereign. Thoſe ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave thoſe petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own eſtates, and they generally executed in four and twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which thoſe chieftains had of out-vying each other, in the numbers of their followers, created perpetual animoſities, which ſeldom or never ended without bloodſhed; ſo that the common people, whoſe beſt qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their maſter, and the aggrandiſement of his name, lived in a ſtate of continual hoſtility.

The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the firſt chieftain we have heard of, who had the patriotiſm to attempt to reform his dependents, and to baniſh from them thoſe barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and there ſcarce can be a doubt, that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of ſociety.

Some Scotch gentlemen, who at this day pique themſelves upon their family, or the antiquity of their deſcent, are the moſt dangerous as well as diſagreeable animals upon earth; becauſe, forgetting all the virtues of their anceſtors, they imitate them only in their capricious vanity and revenge. Thoſe who go abroad, and endeavour by induſtry to raiſe the lowneſs of their circumſtances, excel in all the ſocial, civil, commercial, and military duties. There is a kind of ſimilarity in their perſonal characters, and by ſeeing one Scotchman who acquires a fortune abroad, you ſee the whole. They are hoſpitable, open, communicative, and charitable. They aſſimilate to the manners of the people with whom they live, with more eaſe and freedom than the natives of moſt other countries;

and they have a ſurprizing facility in acquiring languages, particularly the French.

It remains perhaps a queſtion, whether that lettered education, for which the Scots were noted by the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmoſt ſervice to many of its natives. Their literature, however ſlight, rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners; but at the ſame time, it drained their nation of that order of men, who are the beſt fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the public emolument.

With regard to gentlemen who live at home, upon eſtates of 300 l. a year, and upwards, they differ little or nothing, in their manners, and ſtile of living, from their Engliſh neighbours of the like fortunes.

From what has been ſaid, it appears that the antient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry are as far from being applicable to the preſent time, as the forms of a Roman ſenate are to that of a conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent ſo quick and ſo ſudden a tranſition of manners. The danger is, that it has been rather too rapid in a contrary extreme, before the reſources of the luxuries and conveniencies of life have been fully eſtabliſhed.

The peaſantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their ſtations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their paſſions, to behave ſubmiſſively to their ſuperiors, and live within the bounds of the moſt rigid œconomy. Hence they ſave their money and their conſtitutions, and few inſtances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices occur at preſent in Scotland. They ſeldom enter ſingly upon any daring enterprize; but when they act in concert, the ſecrecy, ſagacity and reſolution, with which they carry on any deſperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the ſtrongeſt temptations, ariſing from their poverty, is ſtill more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conſpiracies, witneſs that which put Porteus to death, in 1735, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midſt of 20,000 people; and, though the agents were well known, and ſome of them tried, with a reward of 500 l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found ſufficient to bring them to puniſhment. The fidelity of the Highlanders, of both ſexes, under a ſtill greater temptation, to the young Pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could ſcarcely be believed were it not well atteſted.

They affect a fondneſs for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond, perhaps, any people in the world; but this attachment is ſeldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or diſguſtful, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of the antient Scotch diſhes, ſuch as the hoggice, the ſheep's-head ſinged, the fiſh in ſauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. Theſe diſhes, in their original dreſſing, were ſavoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery, have rendered them agreeable to the moſt delicate palates. The common uſe of oatmeal, undoubtedly, gave a hardneſs to the features of the vulgar of both ſexes, beſides ſome other diſagreeable conſequences it was attended with; but theſe unfavourable characteriſtics will wear out, by the introduction of wheaten bread, which now abounds in Scotland. The exceſſive uſe of oat-meal accounts for the common obſervation, that the faces of the lower women in Scotland are commonly very coarſe; but it was owned

owned at the ſame time, that among the higher rank of females, beauty was found in its utmoſt perfection. The reverſe has been remarked of a neighbouring nation.

The inhabitants of thoſe parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by paſture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful ſimplicity of the Scotch tunes is reliſhed by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the ſubject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the Engliſh ſtage with variations, under new names, but with this diſadvantage, that though rendered more conformable to the rules of muſic, they are moſtly altered for the worſe, being ſtripped of that original ſimplicity, which however irregular, is their moſt eſſential characteriſtic, which is ſo agreeable to the ear, and has ſuch powers over the human breaſt. Thoſe of a more lively and merry ſtrain had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dreſs, by the fifes, an inſtrument for which they are remarkably well ſuited. It has been ridiculouſly ſuppoſed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian ſecretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch muſic. This is a falſhood invented by his countrymen in envy to the Scots. Their fineſt tunes exiſted long before Rizzio's arrival, in their church muſic; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was entirely employed by his miſtreſs in foreign diſpatches, ever compoſed an air during the ſhort time he lived in Scotland; but, were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the muſic itſelf is ſufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not ſo much accuſtomed as the Engliſh are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reaſon, they ſeem to enjoy them more completely. One inſtitution there is, at once ſocial and charitable, and that is, the contributions raiſed for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Thoſe feſtivities partake of the antient Saturnalia; but though the company conſiſts promiſcuouſly of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each gueſt pays according to his inclination or ability, but ſeldom under a ſhilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be ſervants in reſpectable families, the contributions are ſo liberal, that they often eſtabliſh the young couple in the world.

The common people of Scotland retain the ſolemn decent manner of their anceſtors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the pariſh beadle is ſent round with a paſſing bell; but he ſtops at certain places, and with a ſlow melancholy tone, announces the name of the party deceaſed, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceaſed was beloved in the place, vaſt numbers attend. The proceſſion is ſometimes preceded by the magiſtrates and their officers, and the deceaſed is carried in his coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chair poles, to the grave, where it is interred without any farther ceremony than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the ſame manner as in England, but without the burial ſervice. The highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called coronachs, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both ſexes.

Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulneſs; the whole conſiſts in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactneſs. One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen, is the Goff, which requires

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an equal degree of art and ſtrength: it is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper conſtruction, till it terminates in the part that ſtrikes the ball; which is loaded with lead, and faced with horn. The diverſion itſelf reſembles that of the Mall, which was common in England in the middle of the laſt century. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; and each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it in feweſt ſtrokes into a hole, wins the game. The diverſion of Curling is likewiſe, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from 20 to 200 pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand, to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark is the victor. Theſe two may be called the ſtanding ſummer and winter diverſions of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diverſions common in England, the cricket excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen look upon it as too athletic and mechanical.

LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] I place thoſe two articles under the ſame head, becauſe they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is compoſed of a woollen ſtuff, ſometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This ſtuff conſiſts of various colours, forming ſtripes which croſs each other at right angles; and the natives value themſelves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call ſets, of thoſe ſtripes and colours, which where ſkilfully managed, produce a wonderfully pleaſing effect to the eye. Above the ſhirt, the Highlanders wear a waiſtcoat of the ſame compoſition with the plaid, which commonly conſiſts of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the ſhoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as repreſented in antient ſtatues: ſometimes it is faſtened round the middle with a leather belt, ſo that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and ſupplies the want of breeches. This they call being dreſſed in a phelig, but which the Lowlanders call a kilt, and I make no doubt is the ſame word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the ſame variegated ſtuff, buckled round the waiſt, and this they term the philibeg, which ſeems to be of Mileſian extraction. Their ſtockings were likewiſe of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into taſſels. The poorer people wear upon their feet, brogues made of untanned or undreſſed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is uſed, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron piſtol, ſometimes of fine workmanſhip, and curiouſly inlaid with ſilver. The introduction of the broad ſword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dreſs) ſeems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purſe, richly adorned with ſilver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dreſs.

The dreſs of the Highland women conſiſted of a petticoat and jerkin, with ſtrait ſleeves, trimmed or not trimmed according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held cloſe under their chins with the hand, or faſtened with a buckle of a particular faſhion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoſo may find a ſtrong reſemblance between the

the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the antients, and thoſe of the Tuſcans, (who were unqueſtionably of Celtic original) as they are to be ſeen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dreſs, rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dreſſes. The diſarming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful, for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms than thoſe which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden, rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a total change of their dreſs. Its conveniency, however, for the purpoſes of the field, is ſo great, that ſome of the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Even the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and for its lightneſs and diſcumbrance, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the ſummer time.

The dreſs of the higher and middling ranks in the Low-Country, differ little or nothing from the Engliſh; but many of the peaſantry ſtill retain the bonnet, for the cheapneſs and lightneſs of the wear. The dreſs of the women of all ranks are much the ſame in both kingdoms.

I have already mentioned the language of the Highlanders, eſpecially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, to be radically Celtic. The Engliſh ſpoken by the Scots, notwithſtanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more ſouthern counties, is written in the ſame manner in both kingdoms. At preſent, the pronunciation of a Scotchman does not differ ſo much from a Londoner, as that of a Londoner does from an inhabitant of Somerſetſhire, and ſome parts of Worceſterſhire.

PUNISHMENTS.] Theſe are pretty much the ſame in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an inſtrument called the Maiden; the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland, by the regent earl of Morton, and it was hanſelled by his own execution.

RELIGION.] Antient Scottiſh hiſtorians, Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Chriſtianity was firſt taught in Scotland by ſome of the diſciples of St. John the apoſtle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the perſecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor: though it was not publickly profeſſed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch hiſtorians call Donald the Firſt, his queen, and ſeveral of his nobles, were ſolemnly baptized. It was further confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the perſecutions of Aurelius and Diocleſian, when it became the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who ſeem to have been the firſt regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overſeers or biſhops choſen by themſelves, from among their own body, but who had no pre-eminence or rank over the reſt of their brethren.

Thus independent of the church of Rome, Chriſtianity ſeems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed as a national church, where it flouriſhed in its native ſimplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a prieſt ſent by the biſhop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romiſh church, which at laſt prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkneſs which for many ages overſpread Europe; though their dependance upon the pope was very ſlender, when compared to the blind ſubjection of many other nations.

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The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a diſtinct order, notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the Romiſh clergy, ſo late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the 14th century, when they diſappeared. But it is worthy of obſervation, that the oppoſition to popery in this iſland, though it ceaſed in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the ſame age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther, and John Calvin. But tho' the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the Reformers in the 16th century, and the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution; and the finiſhing blow to popery in England, was reſerved to the age of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts and ſciences began to revive in Europe, the abſurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not eſcape the notice of a free and enquiring people, and gave riſe to the reformation in Scotland; which began in the reign of James V. made great progreſs under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length compleated through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrine of Calvin, and was become the apoſtle of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that upon the abolition of the Roman Catholic religion, they were to ſucceed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, who had parcelled out theſe poſſeſſions for themſelves, did not at firſt diſcourage this notion; but no ſooner had Knox ſucceeded in his deſigns, which, through the fury of the mob, deſtroyed ſome of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolized all the church livings, and moſt ſcandalouſly left the reforming clergy to live almoſt in a ſtate of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any ſtruggle in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders, left the doctrine and diſcipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the preſbyterian clergy of vaſt importance to the ſtate; and their revenues have been ſo much mended, that though no ſtipend there exceeds 150l. a year, few fall ſhort of 60l. and none of 50l. If the preſent expenſive mode of living continues in Scotland, the eſtabliſhed clergy will have many unanſwerable reaſons to urge for the increaſe of their revenues.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and economical part of the church of Scotland. It is ſufficient to ſay, that its firſt principle is a parity of eccleſiaſtical authority among all its preſbyters; that it agrees in its cenſures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of oppoſition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment, at various periods, proved ſo tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes of life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who are extremely jealous of their being revived. It is ſaid, that even that relic of popery, the obliging fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repenting-ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides in the world.

world. In short, the power of the Scotch clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predecessors. They have been, ever since the revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the house of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes; but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no use of set forms in worship, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's prayer. The rents of the bishops, since the abolition of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purposes. A thousand pounds a year is always sent by his majesty for the use of the protestant schools erected by act of parliament in North-Britain, and the Western Isles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the support of their widows and orphans. The number of parishes in Scotland are 890, whereof 31 are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the general assembly, which we may call the ecclesiastical parliament of Scotland. It consists of commissioners, some of which are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. A presbytery, consisting of under twelve ministers, sends two ministers and one ruling elder; if it contains between 12 and 18 ministers, it sends three, and one ruling elder: if it contains between 18 and 24 ministers, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery has 24 ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whose election must be attested by the respective kirk-sessions of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner, usually a minister of their own body. The commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often of the first quality of the country.

The king presides by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in this assembly, which meets once a year: but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often create a confusion; which the moderator, who is chosen by them to be as it were speaker of the house, has not sufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to the general assembly; and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

Provincial synods are next in authority to the general assembly. They are composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reversible by the general assembly.

Subordinate to the synods, are presbyteries, 69 of which are in Scotland, each consisting of a number of contiguous parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder, chosen half-yearly out of every kirk-session, compose a presbytery. These presbyteries meet in the head town of that division; but have no jurisdiction beyond their own bounds, though within these they have cognizance of all ecclesiastical causes and matters. A chief part of their business is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and solemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or present in six months after a vacancy, otherwise the presbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk-

A kirk-ſeſſion is the loweſt eccleſiaſtical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own pariſh. The members conſiſt of the miniſter, and elders. The office and duty of a miniſter or preſbyter, conſiſts in preaching, adminiſtering the ſacrament, catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, pronouncing church cenſures, nominating elders, aſſiſting at the ordination of miniſters, within the bounds of their own preſbytery, and preſiding at the kirk-ſeſſion.

The elders generally amount to eight or ten perſons, ſelected by the miniſter from among the moſt intelligent and regular of his pariſhioners. The office of elder is nearly the ſame with that of churchwarden in England, having the ſuperintendency of the poor, and the management of other parochial affairs. They alſo aſſiſt the miniſter, in ſeveral of his clerical duties, particularly in catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, and at the communion table. One of them is called the ruling elder, who is generally a perſon of the firſt quality and intereſt in the pariſh.

It has already been obſerved, that the eſtabliſhed religion in Scotland is preſbyterian: that it was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm, and intolerance of popery, by its perſecuting ſpirit; but at preſent it is mild and gentle, and the moſt rational Chriſtian may accommodate himſelf to the doctrine and worſhip of the national church. It is to be wiſhed, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticiſm not only of lay ſeceders, but of regular miniſters. Theſe are induſtrious to fix upon the abſurdities (and what church is without them) of former divines and viſionaries, and eccleſiaſtical ordinances and diſcipline, which were found to be incompatible with the nature of government. A vaſt number of theſe ſeceding congregations are to be found in the Lowlands. They maintain their own preachers; though ſcarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not, however, find that they fly in the face of the civil power, or at leaſt the inſtances are rare and inconſiderable.

A different ſet of diſſenters in Scotland, conſiſts of the epiſcopalians, a few quakers and papiſts, and other ſectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Epiſcopacy, from the time of the reſtoration in 1660, to that of the revolution in 1688, was the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland; and would probably have continued ſo, had not the biſhops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refuſed to recognize king William's title. The partizans of that unhappy prince retained the epiſcopal religion; and king William's government was ſo unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time, the epiſcopalians were more numerous in ſome parts than the preſbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, as well attended. A Scotch epiſcopiſt thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received ſome checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themſelves ſo well, that at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous; after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, but thinly; and in a few years, they will, probably, be reduced to nothing. In the mean while, the decline of the nonjurors is far from having ſuppreſſed epiſcopacy in Scotland: The Engliſh biſhops ſupply them with clergy qualified according to law, whoſe chapels are chiefly filled by the Engliſh, and ſuch Scotch hearers of that perſuaſion as have places under the government.

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The defection of ſome great families from the cauſe of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries very inconſiderable in Scotland. If any remain, they are confined to the northern parts, and the iſlands: but they appear to be as quiet and inoffenſive as proteſtant ſubjects.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhoprics, St. Andrew's and Glaſgow; and 12 biſhoprics, which are, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brichin, Dumblain, Roſs, Caithneſs, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the iſles.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary hiſtory of Europe for theſe 1400 years paſt. The weſtern parts and iſles of Scotland produced St. Patric, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland; and many others ſince, whoſe bare names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnanus, and other authors, who lived before, and at the time of the conqueſt of England, which are come to our hands, are ſpecimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, according to Scots and foreign hiſtorians, held a correſpondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed certain Scotchmen in planning, ſettling, and ruling his favourite univerſities, and other ſeminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany *. It is an undoubted truth, though a ſeeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philoſopher, and hiſtorian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flouriſhed in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure Engliſh as that bard, and his verſification is perhaps more harmonious. The deſtruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity, have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin ſtile of Buchanan's hiſtory is to this day the moſt claſſical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes, are generally allowed to be the fineſt compoſitions of the times in which they were written, and are free from many of the barbariſms to be found in thoſe ſent them in anſwer. This renders it at leaſt highly probable, that claſſical learning was then more cultivated at the court of Scotland, than at any other in Europe.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, a diſcovery, which in point both of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indiſputable right of Napier of Merchiſton. And ſince his time, the mathematical ſciences have been cultivated in Scotland with amazing ſucceſs. Keil, in his phyſico-mathematical works, to the clearneſs of his reaſoning, has added the colours of a poet, which is the more remarkable, not only as the ſubject is little ſuſceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on aſtronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of Sir Iſaac Newton, was endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man, to the level of ordinary apprehenſions, and for diffuſing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His treatiſe on Fluxions is regarded by the beſt judges in Europe, as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtile ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. While Maclaurin

* Eginhard. in vit. Carol. Mag. alſo Paulus Emilius's hiſtory of the French atchievements, &c. See Mackenzie's Lives.

rin purſued this new career, a geometer no leſs famous, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the ſure, but almoſt deſerted tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simpſon, ſo well known over Europe, for his illuſtration of the ancient geometry. His elements of Euclid, and above all his Conic ſections, are ſufficient of themſelves to eſtabliſh the literary reputation of his native country.

This, however, does not reſt on the character of a few mathematicians and aſtronomers. The fine arts have been called ſiſters to denote their affinity. There is the ſame connection between the ſciences, particularly thoſe which depend on obſervation. Mathematicks, and phyſicks, properly ſo called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of ſtudy to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie and White, hold a diſtinguiſhed place.

Nor have the Scots been unſucceſsful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners, who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius, and delicate ſenſibility of Thomſon.

But of all literary purſuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called morals, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and reſpect. The philoſophy of Dr. Hutcheſon, not to mention other works more ſubtile and elegant, but leſs convincing and leſs inſtructive, deſerves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wiſh to practiſe it. Next to the Eſſay on the Human Underſtanding, it is perhaps the beſt diſſection of the human mind, that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewiſe the moſt uſeful ſupplement to that eſſay.

It would be endleſs to mention all the individuals, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the various branches of literature; particularly as thoſe who are alive (ſome of them in high eſteem for hiſtorical compoſition) diſpute the merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels, which neither envy can blaſt, nor time can deſtroy.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Scotland are four, viz. Thoſe of St. Andrews, Aberdeen, Edinburgh, and Glaſgow.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The Roman, and other antiquities found in Scotland, have of themſelves furniſhed matter for large volumes. The ſtations of the Roman legions, their caſtellas, their pretentures or walls, reaching acroſs the iſland, have been traced with great preciſion by antiquaries and hiſtorians; ſo that, without ſome freſh diſcoveries, an account of them could afford no inſtruction to the learned, and but little amuſement to the ignorant; becauſe at preſent they can be diſcovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief may, however, be proper. The courſe of the Roman wall, (or, as it is called by the country people, Graham's Dyke, from a tradition that a Scottiſh warrior of that name firſt broke over it) between the Clyde and Forth, which was firſt marked out by Agricola, and compleated by Antoninus Pius, is ſtill diſcernible, as are ſeveral Roman camps in the neighbourhood. Agricola's camp at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a ſtriking remain of Roman antiquity. It is ſituated at Ardoch, in Perthſhire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola before he fought the bloody battle, ſo well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think, that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on

on account of the numerous Roman coins and inſcriptions found near it, a Roman caſtellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in Britain, having no leſs than five rows of ditches and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three of them are very diſtinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra: the prætorium is the place where the general's tent ſtood.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or the dome of St. Paul's at London, ſtood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Sterlingſhire, but was lately demoliſhed by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpoſe of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the baſe was eighty-eight feet; ſo that upon the whole, it was one of the moſt compleat Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it ſtood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are ſome artificial conical mounts of earth, which ſtill retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pacis; which ſerve to evidence, that there was a kind of ſolemn compromiſe between the Romans and Caledonians, that the former ſhould not extend their empire farther to the northwards.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utenſils, inſcriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland; ſome of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any eſtabliſhment. By the inſcriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the ſouthern parts.

Daniſh camps and fortifications are eaſily diſcernible in ſeveral northern counties, and are known by their ſquare figures and difficult ſituations. Some houſes of ſtupendous fabrics remain in Roſs-ſhire, but whether they are Daniſh, Pictiſh, or Scottiſh, does not appear. The elevations of two of them are to be ſeen in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentrionale. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian ſtructures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the deſcents of that people upon thoſe coaſts.

Two Pictiſh monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary conſtruction, were lately ſtanding in Scotland, one of them at Abernethy in Perthſhire, the other at Brechin in Angus: both of them are columns, hollow in the inſide, and without a ſtair-caſe; that of Brechin is the moſt entire, being covered at the top with a ſpiral roof of ſtone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it conſiſts of ſixty regular courſes of hewn free ſtone, laid circularly and regularly, and tapering towards the top. If thoſe columns are really Pictiſh, that people muſt have had among them architects that far exceeded thoſe of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman taſte of architecture. It is, however, difficult to aſſign them to any but the Picts, as they ſtand in their dominions; and ſome ſculptures upon that at Brechin, denote it to be of Chriſtian original. It is not indeed impoſſible that thoſe ſculptures are of a later date. Beſides thoſe two pillars, many other Pictiſh buildings are found in Scotland, but not in the ſame taſte.

The veſtiges of erections by the antient Scots themſelves, are not only curious but inſtructive, as they regard many important events of their

hiſtory. That people had amongſt them a rude notion of ſculpture, in which they tranſmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five antient obeliſks are ſtill to be ſeen, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with baſs-reliefs of men on horſeback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day, but minutely deſcribed by Mr. Gordon. Many other hiſtorical monuments of the Scots may be diſcovered on the like occaſions; but it muſt be acknowledged, that the obſcurity of their ſculptures have encouraged a field of boundleſs and frivolous conjectures, ſo that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable, if I ſhould neglect to mention the ſtone near the town of Forreſs or Fortroſe, in Murray, which far ſurpaſſes all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (ſays Mr: Gordon) perhaps, one of the moſt ſtately monuments of that kind in Europe. It riſes about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no leſs than 12 or 15 feet below; ſo that the whole height is at leaſt 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one ſingle and entire ſtone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible; but the injury of the weather has obſcured thoſe towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Daniſh, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulſion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their laſt ſettlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm a few years before the conqueſt of England by the Normans.

Beſides theſe remains of Roman, Pictiſh, Daniſh, and Scotch antiquities, many druidical monuments and temples are diſcernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the iſles, where we may ſuppoſe that paganiſm took its laſt refuge. They are eaſily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are ſo ſtupendous as the druidical erections in South-Britain. There is in Perthſhire a barrow which ſeems to be a Britiſh erection, and the moſt beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world; it exactly reſembles the figure of a ſhip with the keel uppermoſt. The common people call it Ternay, which ſome interpret to be *terræ navis*, the ſhip of earth. It ſeems to be of the moſt remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles diſtant from the great ſcene of Agricola's operations.

Scotland affords few natural curioſities but thoſe we have already mentioned in deſcribing the lakes, rivers, and mountains. Mention is made of a heap of white ſtones, moſt of them clear like chryſtal, together with great plenty of oyſter and other ſea-ſhells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich, in Roſsſhire, twenty miles diſtant from the ſea. Slains, in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping-cave, where water oozing through a ſpungy porous rock on the top, doth quickly conſolidate after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curioſities belonging to Scotland have taken poſſeſſion of its deſcriptions and hiſtories, but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vaniſh when they are ſkilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeſhire, and are probably

bably natural, are of extraordinary dimenſions, and have been the ſcenes of inhuman cruelties.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally takes the lead in this diviſion, which the bounds of our work oblige us to contract. This caſtle, before the uſe of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable by force. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whoſe territories reached to the Firth of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle, and a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conceived; the high-ſtreet, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying eaſt and weſt; and the lanes running down its ſides, north and ſouth. In former times the town was ſurrounded by water, excepting towards the eaſt; ſo that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guiſe, they gave it the name of Liſlebourg. This ſituation ſuggeſted the idea of building very lofty houſes divided into ſtories, each of which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious for the uſe of a family; ſo that the high ſtreet of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad and well paved, makes a moſt auguſt appearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line, and gradual aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is terminated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lofty rock, inacceſſible on all ſides, except where it joins the city. The caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extenſive proſpect of the river Forth, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, and even ſome hills at the diſtance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crouded population, however, was ſo ſhockingly inconvenient, that the Engliſh, who ſeldom went farther into the country, returned with the deepeſt impreſſions of Scotch naſtineſs, which became proverbial. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the moſt ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at preſent of thoſe regalia, is contained in the inſtrument which was taken at the time of their being depoſited, where they are fully deſcribed.

Facing the caſtle, as I have already obſerved, at a mile's diſtance, ſtands the abbey, or rather palace, of Holyrood-houſe. The inner quadrangle of this palace, was begun by James V. and finiſhed by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction of Sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and undoubtedly one of the greateſt architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilaſters; and the inſide contains magnificent apartments for the duke of Hamiſton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, ſome of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at preſent nothing can be more uncomfortable than its ſituation, at the bottom of bleak unimproved craggs and mountains, with ſcarce a ſingle tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it ſtood when repaired and ornamented by that

prince, is thought to have been a moſt elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of ſtone galleries ſupported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inſide was demoliſhed and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the revolution, which even broke into the repoſitories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this antient chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years ago, which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital, founded by George Herriot, goldſmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's work, ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the caſtle, in a noble ſituation. It is the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen which Inigo Jones, whom James VI. of Scotland brought over from Denmark, has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be ſeen in England. One Balquahanan, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is ſaid to have prevailed upon Jones to admit ſome barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have inſiſted that the ornaments of each ſhould be ſomewhat different from thoſe of the others.

It is, notwithſtanding, upon the whole a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens, not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradeſmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magiſtrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an univerſity, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be ſaid of its buildings, which were calculated for the ſober literary manners of thoſe days; they are, however, improveable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is ſupplied with excellent profeſſors in the ſeveral branches of learning; and its ſchools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library founded by one Clement Little, which is ſaid to have been of late greatly augmented; and a muſeum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a phyſician. It contains ſeveral natural, and ſome literary curioſities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

The Parliament-Square, or, as it is there called, Cloſe, was formerly the moſt ornamental part of this city; it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which conſiſts of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a very fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-houſe, though not ſo large, is better proportioned than Weſtminſter-hall; and its roof, though executed in the ſame manner, is by many great judges held to be ſuperior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a ſingle judge, called the lord ordinary, preſides by rotation; in a room near it, ſit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, ſherivalty, and magiſtracy of Edinburgh; and the lawyers valuable library. This equals any thing of the like kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, being at firſt entirely founded and furniſhed by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquiſite taſte and judgment. It contains likewiſe the moſt valuable manuſcript remains of the Scotch hiſtory, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a ſeries of medals. Adjoining to the library,

brary, is the room where the public records are kept; but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miſerably dark and diſmal. It is ſaid that preparations are now carrying on, for lodging both the books and the papers in rooms far better ſuited to their importance and value.

The High Church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into two or three churches, and a room where the general aſſembly ſits. It is a large Gothic building, and its ſteeple is ſurmounted by arches formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to ſuch buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deſerves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, ſuch as the Exchange, its hoſpitals, bridges, and the like, demonſtrate the vaſt improvement of the taſte of the Scots in their public works. On the north ſide of the city, upon a riſing ground, the nobility, gentry, and principal citizens, have begun to build what is to be called the New Town, upon a plan which does honour to the preſent age. The ſtreets and ſquares are laid out with the utmoſt regularity, and the houſes to be built of ſtone, of an equal height, in the moſt elegant taſte, with all the conveniences that render thoſe of England ſo delightful and commodious. The fronts of many already finiſhed, are of aſhler work; but ſuch is the taſte, or avarice of ſome individuals, that here and there this beautiful place is already diſgraced with buildings, raiſed up of rough unfiniſhed ſtone, though the difference of expence in that country is very inconſiderable.

Edinburgh may be conſidered, notwithſtanding its caſtle, and an open wall which encloſes it on the ſouth ſide, of a very modern fabric but in the Roman manner, as an open town; ſo that in fact, it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it againſt the rebels, who took poſſeſſion of it in 1745. A certain claſs of readers would perhaps think it unpardonable, ſhould I omit mentioning that Edinburgh contains a playhouſe, which has now the ſanction of an act of parliament; and that concerts, aſſemblies, balls, muſic-meetings, and other polite amuſements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majeſty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provoſt, four bailiffs, a dean of guild, and a treaſurer, annually choſen from the common council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooſes its own deacon; and here are 14; namely, ſurgeons, goldſmiths, ſkinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, maſons, taylors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provoſt is colonel of the town-guard, a military inſtitution to be found in no part of his majeſty's dominions, but at Edinburgh: they ſerve for the city watch, and patrole the ſtreets, are uſeful in ſuppreſſing ſmall commotions, and attend the execution of ſentences upon delinquents: they are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers, under the name of captains. Beſides this guard, Edinburgh raiſes 16 companies of trained bands, which ſerve as militia. The revenues of the city conſiſt chiefly of that tax which is now common in moſt of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid upon every Scotch pint of ale (containing two Engliſh quarts) conſumed within the precincts of

the city. This is a moſt judicious impoſt, as it renders the pooreſt people inſenſible of the burden. Its product, however, has been ſufficient to defray the expence of ſupplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the diſtance of four miles; of erecting reſervoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and compleating other public works of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles diſtant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the ſame juriſdiction. It contains nothing remarkable, but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the ſame) fortified and bravely defended by the French againſt the Engliſh, under Mary of Guiſe, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble ſeats, which are daily encreaſing; ſome of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particularized here. I cannot however avoid mentioning the earl of Abercorn's, a ſhort way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's houſe at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopton-houſe, ſo called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roſlin, noted for a ſtately Gothic chapel, counted one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glaſgow, in the ſhire of Lanerk, ſituated on a gentle declivity ſloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles weſt of Edinburgh, is for population, commerce, and riches, the ſecond city of Scotland, and, conſidering its ſize, the firſt in Great-Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and are broad, ſtraight, well paved, and conſequently clean. Their houſes make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five ſtories high, and many of them towards the center of the city are ſupported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in the fineſt ſtile of architecture, and the cathedral is a ſtupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which ſtands above another, and is furniſhed with a very fine ſpire ſpringing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a maſterly and a matchleſs fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo or Kentigern, who was biſhop of Glaſgow, in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preſerved from the fury of the Reformers by the reſolution of the citizens. The town-houſe is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magiſtrates. The univerſity is eſteemed the moſt ſpacious and beſt built of any in Scotland, and is at preſent in a thriving ſtate. In this city are ſeveral well endowed hoſpitals; and it is particularly well ſupplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of the moſt illuſtrious ſtranger. They are now building a handſome bridge acroſs the river Clyde, and a large piece of ground is purchaſed near the Croſs, where they intend to erect a magnificent Exchange; but our bounds do not allow us to particularize that, and the other public-ſpirited undertakings of this city carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits ariſing from their vaſt commerce, both foreign and internal; which they carry on with amazing ſucceſs. In Glaſgow are ſeven churches, and eight or ten meeting-houſes for ſectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants have been eſtimated at 50,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a ſhire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the ſhire town, and evidently built for the purpoſe of commerce. It is a large well built city, and has a good quay or tide-harbour: in it are three churches and ſeveral epiſcopal meeting-houſes, a conſiderable degree of foreign commerce and much ſhipping, a well frequented univerſity, and above 12,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile diſtant, though almoſt joined to the new by means of a long village, has no dependance on the other; it is a moderately large market-town, but has no haven. In each of theſe two places there is a well endowed college, both together being termed the univerſity of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other. Perth, the capital town of Perthſhire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic: it is finely ſituated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the moſt fertile ſpots in Great-Britain, called the carſe of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000 inhabitants: it lies near the mouth of the river Tay: it is a town of conſiderable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings and peltry, to ſundry foreign parts: it has three churches. Montroſe, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the ſame county of Angus: the firſt has a great and flouriſhing foreign trade, and the manufactures of the other two are upon the thriving hand.

It may be neceſſary again to put the reader in mind, that I write with great uncertainty with regard to Scotland, on account of its improving ſtate. I have rather under than over-rated the number of inhabitants in the towns I have mentioned. Edinburgh certainly contains more than 60,000 ſouls, which is the common computation, to which I all along conform myſelf; but the influx of people, and the increaſe of matrimony in proportion to that of property, muſt create great alterations for the better, and few for the worſe, becauſe the inhabitants who are diſpoſed to induſtry may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reaſon why I omit a particular deſcription of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paiſley, Sterling, and about 50 other burghs and towns of very conſiderable trade in Scotland.

The antient Scots valued themſelves upon their truſting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country: this was a maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced; and indeed to this day their forts would make but a ſorry figure, if regularly attacked. The caſtles of Edinburgh, Sterling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great ſtrength, could not hold out 48 hours, if beſieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the weſt Highlands, is ſufficient to bridle the inhabitants of the neighbourhood, as are Fort George and Fort Auguſtus, in the north and north-weſt; but none of them can be conſidered as defences againſt a foreign enemy.

I ſhall not pretend to enter upon a deſcription of the noble edifices that have, within the courſe of this and the laſt century, been erected by private perſons in Scotland, becauſe they are ſo numerous, that to particularize them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is ſufficient to ſay, that many of them are equal to the moſt ſuperb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's ſurprize at this will ceaſe, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that

there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapneſs of materials, where it can be gratified at ſo moderate an expence. This may likewiſe account for the ſtupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices which anciently abounded in Scotland; but at the time of the Reformation were moſtly demoliſhed to the ground by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in theſe practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Scotland may hitherto be juſtly looked upon as a non-deſcribed country. All the writers, till within theſe few years, who have treated of that nation, repreſent it as being in the very ſame ſtate as a century ago. In this they are not to blame, becauſe the alteration which the people and country have undergone, has been inconceivably ſudden. Without entering into the diſputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots, to take poſſeſſion of Darien, and to carry on an Eaſt and Weſt-India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (ſo far as it went) executed with a noble ſpirit of enterprize. The miſcarriage of that ſcheme, after receiving the higheſt and moſt ſolemn ſanctions, is a diſgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long languor of the Scottiſh commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country ſuſtained, to the diſguſt the inhabitants received on that account, and ſome invaſions of their rights, which they thought inconſiſtent with the articles of union. The intails and narrow ſettlements of family eſtates, and ſome remains of the feudal inſtitutions, might contribute to the ſame cauſe.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the adminiſtration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the firſt miniſter who diſcovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more conſiderable object of governmental enquiry than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragements granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his adminiſtration, made them ſenſible of their own importance; and had he been a Scotchman, muſt have ruined his miniſtry. Mr. Pitt, a ſucceeding miniſter, purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan: and juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, good ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive war that Great Britain ever was engaged in. Let me add, to the honour of the Britiſh government, that whatever indecent and mean reſentments have been expreſſed by the refuſe of the Engliſh nation againſt the Scots, the latter have been ſuffered to avail themſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or poſterior acts of parliament.

This is manifeſt in the extenſive trade they carry on with the Britiſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt-Indies, and with all the nations to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping within theſe 25 years paſt, has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil, and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange for thoſe, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum, from the Britiſh plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immenſe ſaving of their nation.

The

The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſts, for they have a vaſt concern in the whale fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40 s. for every ton of ſhipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fiſheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily encreaſing, open inexhauſtible funds of wealth; their cured fiſh being by foreigners, and the Engliſh planters in America, preferred to thoſe of Newfoundland.

The benefits of thoſe fiſheries are perhaps equalled by other manufactures carrying on at land, particularly that of iron at Carron, in Sterlingſhire. Their linen manufactory, notwithſtanding a ſtrong rivalſhip from Ireland, ſupported underhand by ſome Engliſh, is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not ſuperior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it, has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been ſaid ſome years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the Britiſh plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Oſnaburgs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000 l. excluſive of their home conſumption; and there is reaſon to believe that the ſum is conſiderably larger at preſent. The Scots are likewiſe making very promiſing efforts for eſtabliſhing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very conſiderable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths; but they make at preſent ſome broad cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhion in an undreſs, and in quality and fineneſs equal to what is commonly called Yorkſhire cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vaſt progreſs they have made in working the mines, and ſmelting the ores of their country. Their coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their ſtones to account, by their contracts for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the Engliſh, is now diminiſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an encreaſe of home conſumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eaſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow is the great emporium for the American commerce. I have already mentioned the great project now executing for joining the Forth to the Clyde, which will render the benefits of trade of mutual advantage to both parts of Scotland. In ſhort, the more that the ſeas, the ſituation, the ſoil, harbours, and rivers of this country are known, the better adapted it appears for all the purpoſes of commerce, both foreign and domeſtic.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, ſome of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paiſley itſelf employs an incredible number of hands in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a reaſonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs works of every kind, delf houſes, and paper-mills, are erected every where. The Scotch carpeting make neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as is found in any part of Europe. Even the fine arts begin to make ſome progreſs. An academy of painting, engraving, and ſtatuary, is eſtabliſhed at Glaſgow, under the patronage of ſeveral noblemen, gentlemen, and principal merchants. After all

all that has been ſaid, many years will be required before the trade and improvements of Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event, they never can give umbrage to the Engliſh, as the intereſts of the two people are, or ought to be the ſame.

Having ſaid thus much, I cannot avoid obſerving the prodigious diſadvantages under which both the commercial and landed intereſt of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great landholders having too fond an attachment for England, and foreign countries, where they ſpend their ready money. This is one of the evils ariſing to Scotland from the union, which removed the ſeat of her legiſlature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the reſort of volunteer abſentees to that capital. While this partiality ſubſiſts, the Scots muſt always be diſtreſt for a currency of ſpecie. How far paper can ſupply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be ſomewhat prevented, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vaſt manufactures and works now ſet on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reſide in Scotland, have wiſely abandoned French claret, (though too much of it is ſtill made uſe of in the country) and brandy, for rum, and the liquors produced in the Britiſh plantations; and their own malt liquors are now come to as great perfection as thoſe of England; and it has been ſaid, that of late they export large quantities of their ale to London, Dublin, and the plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the ſame in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling anſwered to about an Engliſh ſixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an Engliſh groat. It continued diminiſhing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns, under her ſon James VI. when the vaſt reſort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the Engliſh court, occaſioned ſuch a drain of ſpecie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch ſhilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an Engliſh ſhilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were ſucceeded by bodles, which was double the value of a Scotch penny, and are ſtill current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babie; ſome ſay, becauſe it was firſt ſtamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words, *bas piece*, ſignifying a low piece of money. The ſame obſervation we have made of the Scotch ſhilling, holds of their pounds and marks; which are not coins, but denomination of ſums. In all other reſpects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the ſame; as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order, inſtituted, as the Scotch writers aſſert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offenſive and defenſive league with Charlemagne, king of France. It has been frequently neglected and as often reſumed. At preſent it conſiſts of the ſovereign, and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thiſtle, and have on their enſign this ſignificant motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſit*. None ſhall ſafely provoke me.

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] No government in Europe was better fitted for the enjoyment of liberty, than that of Scotland was by its original conſtitution; and if it was reprehenſible in any reſpect, it was that it left

left more freedom to the ſubject than is conſiſtent with civil ſubordination.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promiſes, viz.

"In the name of Chriſt, I promiſe theſe three things to the Chriſtian people my ſubjects: Firſt, that I ſhall give order, and employ my force and aſſiſtance, that the church of God, and the Chriſtian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I ſhall prohibit and hinder all perſons of whatever degree, from violence and injuſtice. Thirdly, in all judgments I ſhall follow the preſcriptions of juſtice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God, may ſhew mercy to me, and to you."

The parliament of Scotland antiently conſiſted of all who held any portion of land, however ſmall, of the crown, by military ſervice. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committees to ſuperintend the adminiſtration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commiſſioned ambaſſadors, it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of ſtate and privy-counſellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and reſtrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even entruſted with the executive part of the government. And ſo late as the minority of James IV. who was cotemporary with and ſon-in-law to Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſervant of his people; as appears by the acts ſtill extant. In ſhort, the conſtitution was rather ariſtocratical than monarchical. The abuſe of theſe ariſtocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very conſiderable intereſt among the lower ranks; and a prince who had ſenſe and addreſs to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the moſt overgrown of his ſubjects: when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. ſhewed a diſreſpect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithſtanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were aſſiſted by their clergy, whoſe revenues were immenſe, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by eſtabliſhing a ſelect body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. Theſe were choſen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeſſes. The biſhops, for inſtance, choſe 8 peers, and the peers 8 biſhops; and thoſe 16 jointly choſe 8 barons (or knights of the ſhire) and 8 commiſſioners for burghs; and to all thoſe were added 8 great officers of ſtate, the chancellor being preſident of the whole.

Their buſineſs was to prepare all queſtions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; ſo that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to beſtow, always ſure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It muſt be acknowledged, that this inſtitution ſeems to have prevailed by ſtealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular ſyſtem;

ſyſtem; even its modes varied; and the greateſt lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never loſt ſight of their original principles; and though Charles I. wanted to form theſe lords of the articles into regular machines for his own deſpotic purpoſes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy conſequences are well known. At the revolution, the Scots gave a freſh inſtance how much better they underſtood the principles of liberty than the Engliſh did, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince and princeſs of Orange.

This ſpirit of reſiſtance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the moſt inſupportable miniſterial tyranny ever ſince the reſtoration. It is aſked, why did they ſubmit to that tyranny? The anſwer is, in order to preſerve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to deſtroy, by uniting them with England: they therefore choſe to ſubmit to a temporal evil; but they took the firſt opportunity to get rid of their oppreſſors.

Scotland, when it was a ſeparate kingdom, cannot be ſaid to have had any peers, in the Engliſh ſenſe of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquiſſes, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary barons of parliament; but they formed no diſtinct houſe, for they ſat in the ſame room with the commons, who had the ſame deliberative and deciſive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might ſit upon a lord's aſſize in matters of life and death; nor was it neceſſary for the aſſizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal cuſtoms, even at the time of the reſtoration, were ſo prevalent, the reſcue of a great criminal was commonly ſo much apprehended, that ſeldom above two days paſſed between the ſentence and the execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch hiſtory, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes: a convention, or meeting of the ſtates, only met for the purpoſes of taxation. Before the union, the kings of Scotland had 4 great and 4 leſſer officers of ſtate; the great, were the lord high chancellor, high treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary: the 4 leſſer were, the lords regiſter, advocate, treaſurer-depute, and juſtice-clerk. Since the union none of theſe continue, excepting the lords privy-ſeal, regiſter, advocate, and juſtice-clerk; a third ſecretary of ſtate has occaſionally been nominated by the king for Scottiſh affairs, but under the ſame denomination as the other two ſecretaries. The above officers of ſtate ſat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, conſtable, admiral, and marſhal. The officers of conſtable and marſhal were hereditary. A nobleman has ſtill a penſion as admiral; and the office of marſhal is exerciſed by a knight marſhal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the ſame in England. The ſame may be ſaid of the lords treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary. The lord-regiſter was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treaſury, exchequer, and ſeſſion, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleaſure, yet it was very lucrative, by diſpoſing of his deputation, which laſted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to diſpute his report of the numbers upon a diviſion. The lord-advocate's office reſembles

bles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extenſive; becauſe, by the Scotch laws, he is the proſecutor of all capital crimes before the juſticiary, and likewiſe concurs in all purſuits before ſovereign courts for breaches of the peace; and alſo in all matters civil, wherein the king, or his donator, has intereſt. Two ſollicitors are named by his majeſty, by way of aſſiſtants to the lord-advocate. The office of juſtice-clerk, entitles the poſſeſſor to preſide in the criminal court of juſtice, while the juſtice-general, an office I ſhall deſcribe hereafter, is abſent.

The ancient conſtitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and ſtate; but they are either now extinct or too inconſiderable to be deſcribed here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex fœcialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is ſtill in being, and it was formerly an office of great ſplendour and importance, inſomuch that the ſcience of heraldry was preſerved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned ſolemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, which is not the caſe in England, in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy-council of Scotland, before the revolution, had, or aſſumed inquiſitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now ſunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great-Britain, and the civil and criminal cauſes there are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The firſt is that of the college of juſtice, which was inſtituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to ſupply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took to themſelves the names of the lords of council and ſeſſion, which the preſent members of the college of juſtice ſtill retain. This court conſiſts of a preſident and 14 ordinary members, beſides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may ſit and vote, but have no ſalaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a ſtanding jury in all matters of property that lie before them. Their forms of proceeding do not lie within my plan, neither does any enquiry how far ſuch an inſtitution, in ſo narrow a country as Scotland, is compatible with the ſecurity of private property. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of ſurprize, that the Scots were ſo tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the eſſence of their laws, as to reſerve them by the articles of the union. This, however, can be eaſily accounted for, becauſe thoſe laws and forms were eſſential to the poſſeſſion of eſtates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. I ſhall juſt add, that the lords of council and ſeſſion act likewiſe as a court of equity; but their decrees are ſometimes (fortunately perhaps for the ſubject) reverſible by the Britiſh parliament, to which an appeal lies.

The juſtice court is the higheſt criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its preſent form it was inſtituted ſo late as the year 1672, when a lord juſtice general, removeable at the king's pleaſure, was appointed. This lucrative office ſtill exiſts in the perſon of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the juſtice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of ſeſſion. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits, but, as I have already hinted, without any neceſſity of their being unanimous.

Beſides thoſe two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the ſame power, authority,

thority, privilege, and juriſdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto, are likewiſe competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exerciſe certain powers which formerly belonged to the treaſury, and are ſtill veſted in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland, was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a ſupreme court, in all cauſes competent to its own juriſdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and juſtice-general upon the ſeas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the ſame; and upon freſh waters, and navigable rivers, below the firſt bridge, or within flood-mark; ſo that nothing competent to his juriſdiction can be meddled with, in the firſt inſtance, but by the lord high admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences paſſed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before his court; but no advocation lies from it to the lords of the ſeſſion, or any other judicatory, unleſs in caſes not maritime. Cauſes are tried in this court by the civil law, which, in ſuch caſes, is likewiſe the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wiſby, and the Hanſetowns, and other maritime practices and deciſions common upon the continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the ſalary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000 l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of diſtinction, with conſiderable perquiſites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which anſwers to the Engliſh inns of court, may be called the ſeminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themſelves an orderly court, and their forms require great preciſion and examination to qualify its candidates for admiſſion. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who call themſelves writers to the ſignet, becauſe they alone can ſubſcribe the writs that paſs the ſignet; they likewiſe have a bye government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland; we ſhall paſs to thoſe that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly veſted in ſheriffs and ſtewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commiſſaries, juſtices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly ſheriffdoms were generally, though moſt abſurdly, hereditable; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all veſted in the crown; it being there enacted, That all high-ſheriffs, or ſtewards, ſhall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors. In regard to the ſheriff-deputes, and ſtewart-deputes, it is enacted, That there ſhall only be one in each county, or ſtewartry, who muſt be an advocate, of three years ſtanding at leaſt. For the ſpace of ſeven years, theſe deputies are to be nominated by the king, with ſuch continuance as his majeſty ſhall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unleſs guilty of ſome offence. Some other regulations have been likewiſe introduced, highly for the credit of the ſheriffs courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the ſtewarts had much the ſame power in them, as the ſheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old, were held by virtue of a royal juriſdiction veſted in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but theſe were

were ſo dangerous, and ſo extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now diſſolved by an act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every perſon who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to cauſes not exceeding forty ſhillings ſterling; and in criminal caſes, to petty actions of aſſault and battery; but the puniſhment is not to exceed twenty ſhillings ſterling, or ſetting the delinquent in the ſtocks for three hours, in the day-time. Theſe courts, however petty, were, in former days, inveſted with the power of life and death, which they have now loſt.

The courts of commiſſaries in Scotland, anſwer to thoſe of the Engliſh dioceſan chancellors, the higheſt of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and teſtaments; the right of patronage to eccleſiaſtical benefices, tithes, divorces, and cauſes of that nature; but in almoſt all other parts of the kingdom, there ſits but one judge on theſe cauſes.

According to the preſent inſtitution, juſtices of the peace in Scotland exerciſe pretty much the ſame powers as thoſe in England. In former times, their office, though of very old ſtanding, was inſignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till 15 days after the fact.

The inſtitution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legiſlator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman conqueſt of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to regiſter depoſitions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office, however, is at preſent much diſuſed in Scotland.

From the above ſhort view of the Scotch laws and inſtitutions, it is plain that they were radically the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh. The latter alledge indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, their oldeſt law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, aſſert, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, nor never did, exiſt in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, conſiſting of a repreſentative from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extenſive, and before the Union they made laws relating to ſhipping, to maſters and owners of ſhips, to mariners and merchants, by whom they were freighted; to manufacturers, ſuch as plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of fiſh, ſalmon, and herrings; to the importing and exporting ſeveral commodities: the trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to their regulation: they fix the ſtaple-port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Camphere. Their conſervator is indeed nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his ſalary; ſo that, in truth, the whole ſtaple trade is ſubjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very ſingular inſtitution, and ſufficiently proves the vaſt attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its preſent form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent conſequences for the benefit of commerce.

Such are the laws and conſtitution of Scotland, as they exiſt at preſent, in

in their general view; but our bounds do not permit us to deſcend to farther particulars, which are various and complicated. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The Engliſh law reports are of the ſame nature with the Scotch praticks; and their acts of ſederunt, anſwer to the Engliſh rules of court; the Scottiſh wadſets and reverſions, to the Engliſh mortgages and defeazances: their ponding of woods, after letters of horning, is much the ſame as the Engliſh executions upon outlawries: and an appeal againſt the king's pardon, in caſes of murder, by the next of kin to the deceaſed, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other uſages are the ſame in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, diſmiſs this head without one obſervation, which proves the ſimilarity between the Engliſh and Scotch conſtitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in preſence of the king, who was ſeated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch conſtitutions, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here tranſacted; judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the ſame nature as the Saxon Folc-mote, and to ſignify no more than the hill of meeting.

History.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch hiſtory are too fond of ſyſtem and fable, yet it is eaſy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were, probably, the firſt inhabitants; the Picts, undoubtedly, were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, above fourſcore years before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar; and who, ſettling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, who were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots, moſt probably, were a nation of adventurers from the antient Scythia, who had ſerved in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying ſouthward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all theſe people, in proceſs of time, were ſubdued by the Scots.

Having premiſed thus much, it is unneceſſary for me to inveſtigate the conſtitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is ſufficient to add to what I have already ſaid upon that head, that they ſeem to have been as forward as any of their ſouthern neighbours in the arts of war and government.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the antient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the hiſtory of that war is not only tranſmitted with great preciſion, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raiſed by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave ſtand made by Galdus againſt that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the ſentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble hiſtorian with the ſame generous paſſion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal ſome part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned ſouthward, to the

ovince of the Horesti, which was the county of Fife, without im-
oving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwise called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch histo-
ans, the 21st in a lineal descent from Fergus I. the founder of their
onarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been disputed, yet no-
ing can be more certain, from the Roman histories, than that the Cale-
nians, or Scots, were governed by a succession of brave and wise princes,
ring the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant resistance
bliged Agricola himself, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus,
build the two famous pretentures or walls, which will be described in
r account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and
cots; and that the independence of the latter was never subdued.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the
hristian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before mentioned, were
e descendents of the ancient Britons, who had been forced northwards
the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and being
ten defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined with the Romans
gainst the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and
nsidered themselves as one people; so that the Scots monarchy suffered
short eclipse: but it broke out with more lustre than ever under Fergus II.
ho recovered his crown; and his successors gave many severe overthrows
the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas,
British historian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the
cts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove
em to the very sea; so that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief;
d in the famous letter, which they called their groans, they tell them,
at they had no choice left, but that of being swallowed up by the sea,
perishing by the swords of the barbarians; for so all nations were called
ho were not Roman or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldest
istories, and those that are least favourable to monarchy, that the suc-
ession to the crown of Scotland still continued in the family of Fergus,
at generally descended collaterally; till the inconveniencies of that mode
f succession were so much felt, that by degrees it fell into disuse, and it
as at last settled in the right line.

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince so
uch respected, that his friendship was courted by Charlemagne, and a
ague was concluded between them, which seems to have laid the founda-
on of an alliance that was held inviolate, while the monarchy of Scot-
nd continued to exist; in support of which they were ever ready to
econd the views of France, to espouse her cause, to fight her battles,
ther at home, or in foreign countries, sometimes to the almost extirpa-
on of the best blood of their nation. This blind partiality to France,
otwithstanding the many inviting, and indeed reasonable overtures from
ngland, can only be accounted for from that spirit of liberty which
reathes through their whole history, the veneration for the antient line
f their kings, and a jealousy which every man entertained of a more
owerful nation, from whom nature had placed no barrier.

No fact of equal antiquity is better attested than this league, together
ith the great service performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civi-
zing the vast dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already ob-
rved under the article of learning. The Picts still remained in Scotland

as a ſeparate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally ſubdued them, but not in the ſavage manner mentioned by ſome hiſtorians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themſelves with their conquerors, by taking their name and adopting their laws. The ſucceſſors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almoſt perpetual wars with the Saxons on the ſouthward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the eaſt; who being maſters of the ſea, harraſſed the Scots by powerful invaſions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the Engliſh, for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at laſt driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Daniſh monarchs, who then governed England, were not more ſucceſsful againſt the Scots; who maintained their freedom and independency, not only againſt foreigners, but againſt their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was probably introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gallic words which ſignify a large head, but moſt probably his great capacity, was the 86th king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the ſuppoſed founder of the monarchy; the 47th from its reſtorer, Fergus II. and the 22d from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakeſpear, who keeps cloſe to the facts delivered by hiſtorians, can be no ſtranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own hiſtory previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wiſe and magnanimous prince, and in no reſpect inferior to his contemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, ſurnamed the Outlaw, ſon to Edmund Ironſide, king of England. By the death of her brother, Edgar Etheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the poſterity of that princeſs, who was one of the wiſeſt and worthieſt women of the age; and her daughter, Maud, was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his ſon, treacherouſly, as it is ſaid, at the ſiege of Alnwic, by the beſieged.

Malcolm III. was ſucceeded by his brother, Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whoſe legitimacy was diſputed. They were ſucceeded by Edgar, Alexander, and David, the ſons of Malcolm, who were wiſe and brave princes.

Notwithſtanding the endeavours of ſome hiſtorians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of David's reign, yet he was, perhaps, the greateſt prince of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legiſlator. The noble actions he performed in the ſervice of his niece, the empreſs Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the Engliſh crown, give us the higheſt idea of his virtues, as they could be the reſult only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightieſt prince of his age, owed his crown; and his poſſeſſions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power on an equality with that of England, when confined to this iſland. His actions and adventures, and the reſources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the firſt rank. If he appeared to be too laviſh to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to conſider, they were the only means by which he could then civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws I have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him,

do his memory immortal honour. They are ſaid to have been compiled under his inſpection by learned men, whom he aſſembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melroſs. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon, Malcolm IV. and he, by William, ſurnamed, from his valour, the Lyon. William's ſon, Alexander II. was ſucceeded, in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, firſt, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince, who married the earl of Flanders's daughter; David and Margaret, who married Hangowan, or, as ſome call him, Eric, ſon to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bare to him a daughter, named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway; in whom king William's whole poſterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the deſcendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

I have been the more particular in this detail, becauſe it was productive of great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandſon to David earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter, Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandſon to the ſame earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Iſabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of ſucceſſion, which were not then ſo well eſtabliſhed in Europe as they are at preſent, rendered the caſe very difficult. Both parties were almoſt equally matched in intereſt; but after a confuſed interregnum of ſome years, the great nobility agreed in referring the deciſion to Edward I. of England, the moſt politic, ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived ſome obſolete abſurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was diſpoſed to hold it by that diſgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a ſlave, without Baliol's reſenting it.

After this, Edward uſed many bloody endeavours to annex their crown to his own; but though they were often defeated, the independent Scots never were conquered. They were indeed but few, compared to thoſe in the intereſt of Edward and Baliol, which was the ſame; and for ſome time were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himſelf of their weakneſs and his own power. He accepted of a formal ſurrender of the crown from Baliol, to whom he allowed a penſion, but detained him in England; and ſent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the leaſt ſuſpected, to different priſons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to him; and moſt barbarouſly carried off, or deſtroyed, all the monuments of their hiſtory, and the evidences of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical ſtone, which is ſtill to be ſeen in Weſtminſter-Abbey.

Thoſe ſevere proceedings, while they rendered the Scots ſenſible of their ſlavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward, finding their ſpirits were not to be ſubdued, endeavoured to careſs them, and affected to treat them on the footing of an equality with his own ſubjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have ſince taken place, between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with diſdain; and united under the brave William Wallace, the trueſt hero of his age, to expel the Engliſh. Wallace performed actions that entitle him to eternal renown, in executing this ſcheme. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increaſing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the ſon of the

firſt competitor, began to ſuſpect that he had an eye upon the crown, eſpecially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garriſons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the ſtates of Scotland their protector. Their jealouſy operated ſo far, that they formed violent cabals againſt the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the moſt numerous and beſt diſciplined army England had ever ſeen, for it conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horſemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed; and was attended by a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. Theſe, beſides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body; ſo that Edward was obliged to divide it, reſerving the command of 40,000 of his beſt troops to himſelf. With theſe he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their diſputes ran ſo high, that the brave regent was deſerted by Cumming, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Wallace, whoſe troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vaſt loſs, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace ſtill continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions againſt the Engliſh; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who moſt ungenerouſly put him to death at London as a traitor; but he died himſelf, as he was preparing to renew his invaſion of Scotland with a ſtill more deſolating ſpirit of ambition, after having deſtroyed, according to the beſt hiſtorians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inſpired his ſon, who was a priſoner at large about the Engliſh court, with the glorious reſolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He eſcaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he aſſumed the crown; but was defeated by the Engliſh (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After this defeat, he fled, with one or two friends, to the Weſtern Iſles, and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and ſufferings were as inexpreſſible, as the courage with which he and his few friends (the lord Douglas eſpecially) bore them, was incredible. Though his wife and daughter were ſent priſoners to England, where the beſt of his friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death, yet, ſuch was his perſevering ſpirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Sterling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the diſſipated conduct of Edward II. who raiſed an army more numerous and better appointed ſtill than that of his father, to make a total conqueſt of Scotland. It is ſaid that it conſiſted of 300,000, but this muſt be underſtood as including the foreigners attending the camp, which in thoſe days were very numerous; but it is admitted on all hands, that it did not conſiſt of ſo few as 100,000 fighting men, while that of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them heroes who had been bred up in a deteſtation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led this mighty hoſt towards Sterling, then beſieged by Bruce; who had choſen, with the greateſt judgment, a camp near Bannock-burn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Thoſe under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himſelf, was reckoned to be the beſt knight in Scotland; his

his nephew, Randolf, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-ſteward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was furious beyond diſpute, and required all the courage and firmneſs of Bruce and his friends to reſiſt it, which they did ſo effectually, that they gained one of the moſt complete victories that is recorded in hiſtory. The great loſs of the Engliſh fell upon the braveſt part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in perſon againſt Bruce himſelf. The Scotch writers make the loſs of the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men. Be that as it will, there certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors loſt 4000. The flower of the Engliſh nobility were either killed or taken priſoners. Their camp, which was immenſely rich, and calculated for the purpoſe rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots: and Edward himſelf, with a few followers, favoured by the goodneſs of their horſes, were purſued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he eſcaped in a fiſhing boat. This great and deciſive battle happened in the year 1314*.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a ſeries of the moſt glorious ſucceſſes; and ſo well did his nobility underſtand the principles of civil liberty, and ſo unfettered they were by religious conſiderations, that in a letter they ſent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had ſet aſide Baliol for debaſing the crown by holding it of England; and that they would do the ſame by Robert if he ſhould make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, ſent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greateſt part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by expoſing himſelf too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, which happened in 1328, made an advantageous peace with England; and when he died, he was acknowledged to be indiſputably the greateſt hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be ſaid to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was ſucceeded by his ſon, David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipſed by his brother-in-law, and enemy, Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. Edward, who was as keen as any of his predeceſſors upon the conqueſt of Scotland, eſpouſed the cauſe of Baliol, ſon to Baliol, the original competitor. His progreſs was at firſt amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at laſt driven out of his uſurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken priſoner by the Engliſh at the battle of Durham; and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ranſom; and died in peace, without iſſue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The firſt king of that name was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was ſucceeded by his ſon, Robert III. whoſe age and infirmities diſqualified him from

* That the Scots of thoſe days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muſes, may be ſeen from a ſcoffing ballad, made on this memorable victory, which begins as follows.

Maydens of England ſore may ye mourn,
For zour lemmons (laymens) zou have loſt at Bannockburn.
With heve a low.
What ho! ween'd the king of England,
So ſoon to have won all Scotland,
With a rumby low!

reigning; so that he was forced to trust the government to his brother the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who seems to have had an eye to the crown for his own family. Robert, upon this, attempted to send his second son to France, but he was most ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England, during the continuance of a truce; and after suffering a captivity of 19 years, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ransom. During the imprisonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greatest height in France, where they supported that tottering monarchy against England, and their generals obtained some of the first titles of the kingdom.

James, the first of that name, upon his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government, enacted many wise laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he saw the feudal system refined from many of the imperfections which still adhered to it, in his own kingdom: he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover such lands as had been unjustly wrested from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns; but the execution of these designs cost him his life, being murthered in his bed by some of the chief nobility, in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority succeeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greatest of his ancestors, both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been suddenly killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the thirtieth year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to favourites, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, being slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave; he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, so that they rivalled the English in riches: and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII's daughter, was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family distemper, a predilection for the French, in whose cause he rashly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent presents. But James took no share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the instigation of the clergy, to a religious persecution, though it is generally believed that, had he lived,

lived, he would have ſeized all the church revenues, in imitation of Henry; but he died in the 31ſt year of his age, anno 1542, of grief, for an affront which his arms had ſuſtained in an ill-judged expedition againſt the Engliſh.

His daughter and ſucceſſor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in hiſtory. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that during her minority, and while ſhe was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her anceſtors while a widow, ſhe married her own couſin-german, the lord Darnley, whoſe untimely death has given riſe to much controverſy, and the reſult of which is highly in favour of her memory. The conſequence of her huſband's death was a rebellion, by which ſhe was driven into England, where ſhe was baſely detained a priſoner for 18 years, and afterwards beheaded by order of queen Elizabeth in 1586-7, and the 46th year of her age.

Mary's ſon, James VI. of Scotland, ſucceeded in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the Engliſh crown, after ſhewing great abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, deſtroyed the independency, as it impoveriſhed the people of Scotland; for the ſeat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to ſeek for bread in other countries. James, after a ſplendid, but troubleſome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his ſon, the unfortunate Charles I. It is well known that the deſpotic principles of that prince received the firſt check from the Scots; and that, had it not been for them, he would eaſily have ſubdued his Engliſh rebels, who implored the aſſiſtance of the Scots; but afterwards, againſt all the ties of honour and humanity, brought him to the block in 1648.

The Scots ſaw their error when it was too late; and made ſeveral bloody, but unfortunate attempts, to ſave the father, and to reſtore his ſon, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worceſter; after which, to the time of his reſtoration, the uſurper gave law to Scotland. I have, in another place, touched upon the moſt material parts of Charles's reign, and that of his deluded brother, James VII. of Scotland, and II. of England, as well as of king William, who was ſo far from being a friend to Scotland, that, relying on his royal word to her parliament, ſhe was brought to the brink of ruin.

The ſtate of parties in England, at the acceſſion of queen Anne, was ſuch, that the Whigs, once more, had recourſe to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate union as it now ſtands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would liſten to the propoſal; but at laſt, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money diſtributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; ſince which event, the hiſtory of Scotland becomes the ſame with that of England.

ENGLAND.

Extent and situation.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 360	between	50 and 56 north latitude.
Breadth 300		2 east and 6-20 west longitude.

Climate and boundaries. THE longeſt day, in the northern parts, contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the ſhorteſt, in the ſouthern, near 8 hours. It is bounded on the north, by that part of the iſland called Scotland; on the eaſt, by the German Ocean; on the weſt, by St. George's Channel; and on the ſouth by the Engliſh Channel, which parts it from France.

This ſituation, by the ſea waſhing it on three ſides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, ſo that the inhabitants on the ſea coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the ſame degrees of latitude, are ſubject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially thoſe who live on a dry ſoil. To this ſituation likewiſe we are to aſcribe that perpetual verdure for which England is admired and envied all over the world, occaſioned by the refreſhing ſhowers and the warm vapours of the ſea.

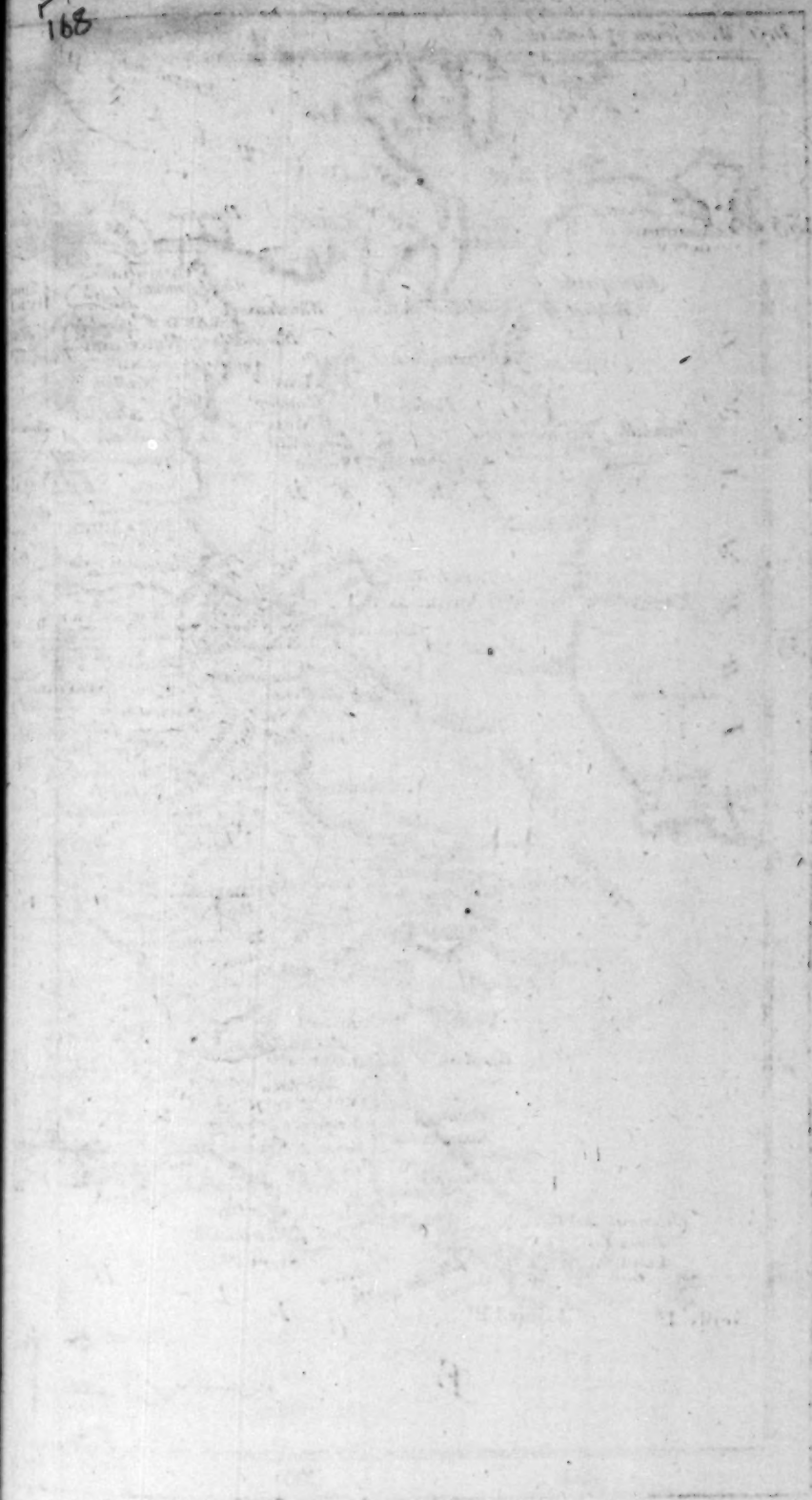
Name and divisions, ancient and modern. Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*; ſome derive it from a Celtic word, ſignifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived, as I have already mentioned, from Anglen, a province now ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which furniſhed a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this iſland. In the time of the Romans, the whole iſland went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Britt*, according to Mr. Camden, ſignified painted or ſtained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies: other antiquaries, however, do not agree in this etymology. The weſtern tract of England, which is almoſt ſeparated from the reſt by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the land of ſtrangers, becauſe inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were ſtrangers to the old natives.

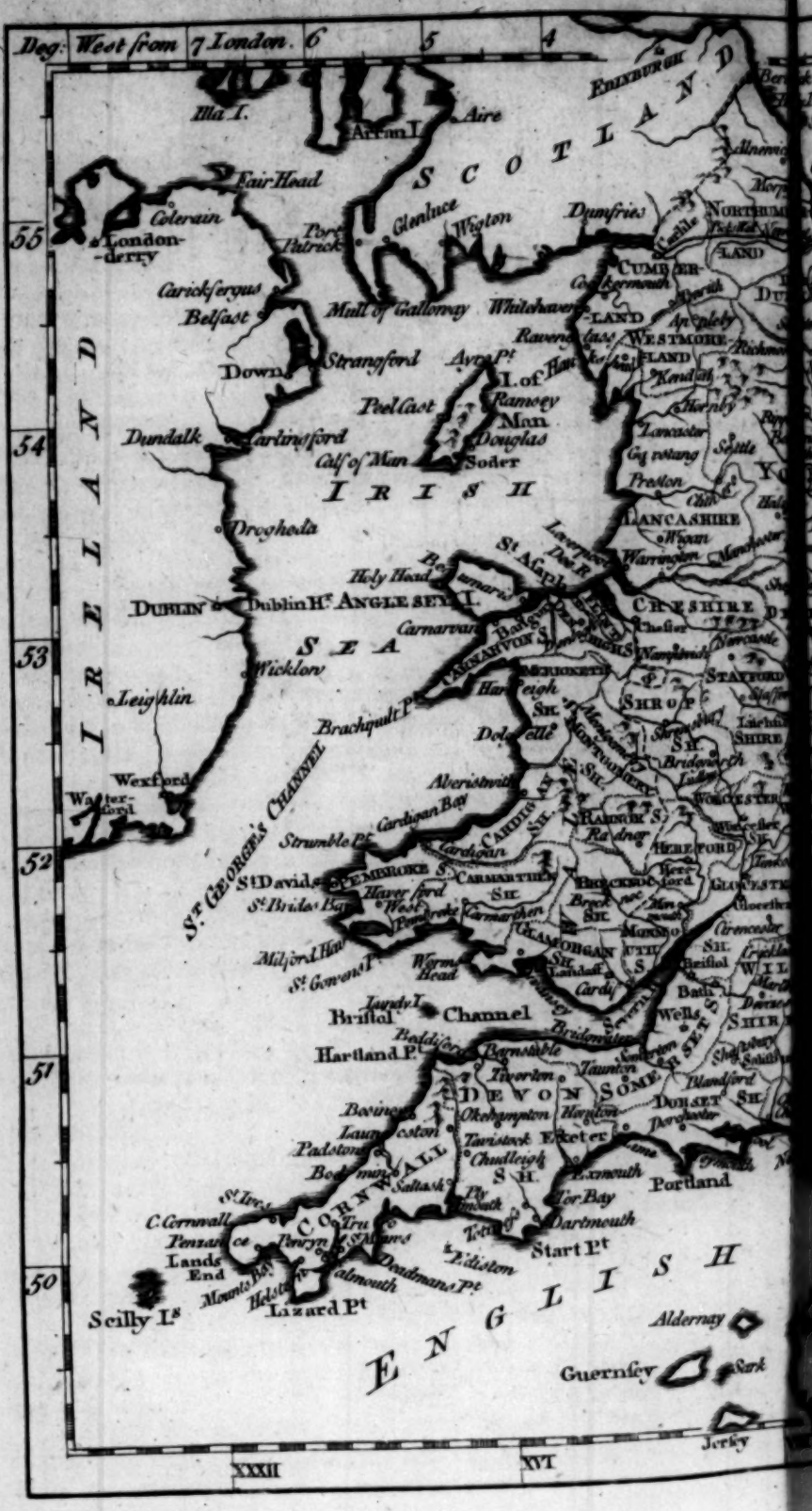
When the Romans provinciated England (for they never did Scotland) they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the ſouthern parts of the kingdom.
2. Britannia Secunda, containing the weſtern parts, comprehending Wales; and,
3. Maxima Cæſarienſis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

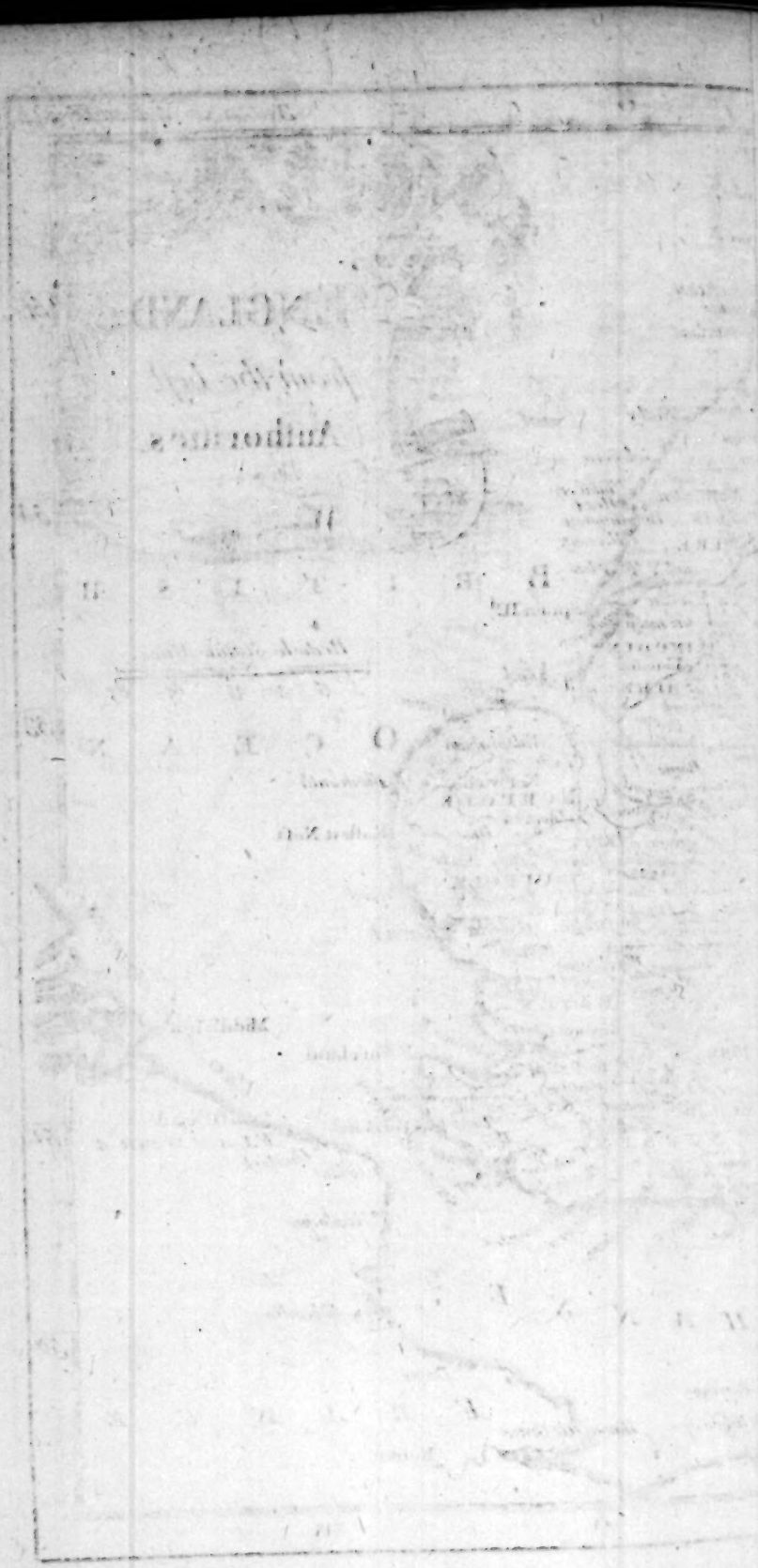
To theſe diviſions ſome add, the Flavia Cæſarienſis, which they ſuppoſe to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxon invaſion took place, about the year 450, and when they were eſtabliſhed in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themſelves, after the manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the moſt inſtrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political republic, conſiſting of ſeven kingdoms; but in time of war, a chief was choſen out of the ſeven kings; for which reaſon I call it a political republic, its conſtitution greatly reſembling that of antient Greece.




Deg: West from London.
7
6
5
4
55
54
53
52
51
50
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
IRISH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Edinburgh
Ilsa I.
Arran I.
Aire
Fair Head
Coleraine
London-derry
Port Patrick
Glenluce
Wigton
Dumfries
Carrickfergus
Belfast
Mull of Galloway
Whitehaven
Down
Strangford
Ayr Pt
I. of Man
Peel Cast
Ramsey
Douglas
Soder
Calf of Man
Dundalk
Carlingsford
Drogheda
Holy Head
St Asaph
Liverpool
Dee R.
Warrington
Manchester
Lancaster
Preston
Wigan
DUBLIN
Dublin
Hd
ANGLESEY I.
Carnarvon
Bay
Wicklow
Leighlin
Brachquil Pt
Aberistwith
Wexford
Waterford
Cardigan Bay
Strumble Pt
Cardigan
St Davids
Haverford West
Pembroke
Carmarthen
St Brides Bay
Milford Haven
St Govens Pt
Worms Head
Lundy I.
Bristol Channel
Hartland Pt
Bideford
Barnstable
Ilfracombe
Tiverton
Taunton
Bovington
Okehampton
Hamton
Launceston
Tavistock
Exeter
Padstow
Chudleigh
Bodmin
Saltash
Plymouth
Exmouth
Torbay
Portland
St Ives
C. Cornwall
Truro
Penzance
Penryn
St Mawes
Dartmouth
Tidiston
Start Pt
Lands End
Mounts Bay
Helston
Falmouth
Deadmans Pt
Scilly Is
Lizard Pt
Alderney
Guernsey
Cark
Jersey
CUMBERLAND
WESTMORELAND
LANCASHIRE
CHESHIRE
SHROP SHIRE
STAFFORD SHIRE
WORCESTER SHIRE
HEREFORD SHIRE
GLOUCESTER SHIRE
MONMOUTH SHIRE
RADNOR SHIRE
BRECKNOCK SHIRE
GLAMORGAN SHIRE
CARMARTHEN SHIRE
CARDIGAN SHIRE
PEMBROKE SHIRE
DEVON
SOMERSET SHIRE
DORSET SHIRE
WILTS SHIRE
XXXII
XVI


ENGLAND
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Authorities.
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BRITISH
OCEAN
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FRANCE
FLANDERS
UNITED PROVINCES
NORFOLK
SUFFOLK
ESSEX
SUSSEX
SURREY
KENT
LINCOLN SHIRE
YORK SHIRE
CAMBRIDGE
BEDFORD
HERTFORD
BUCKINGHAM SHIRE
Whitby
Scarboro
Flamboro Head
Bridlington
Harwich
Yarmouth
Lynn
Norwich
Thetford
Diss
Yaston Ness
Bury
Southwold
Ipswich
Orford
Colchester
Walden
Maldon
Rochester
Canterbury
Deal
Dover
S. Foreland
N. Foreland
Thames R.
Middleburg
Ostend
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Abbeville
Diepe
Havre de Grace
Rouen
Steats of Dover
Spurn Hd
Wainfleet
Wells
Cromer
Walsingham
Boston
Grantham
Stamford
Lincoln
Grimsby
Barton
Hull
Beverley
Pickering
New Malton
York
Harsey
Staples
Coquet
Tinmouth Cast.
Shields
Sunderland
Caistow
Allerton
Yarm
Richmond
Durham
Darlington
Barnard Castle
Appleby
Penrith
Carlisle
Cockermouth
Whitehaven
Ravenglass
Lancaster
Preston
Liverpool
Manchester
Warrington
Chester
Wrexham
Shrewsbury
Oswestry
Ludlow
Worcester
Hereford
Gloucester
Tewkesbury
Cirencester
Oxford
Abingdon
Reading
Windsor
Eton
Uxbridge
Hounslow
London
Tilbury Ft
Kingston
Guilford
Farnham
Godalming
Dorking
Tunbridge
Maidstone
Ashford
Hythe
Romney
Rye
Winchelsea
Hastings
Battle
Lewes
Arundel
Chichester
Shoreham
Brighthelmston
Rottingdean
Seaford
Beachy Hd
Portland I.
Isle of Wight
Cape La Hogue
Barfleur
Sark
Jersey
Alderney
Guernsey
Wilton
Salisbury
Andover
Basingstoke
Odiham
Alton
Winchester
Southampton
Lymington
Christchurch
Poole
Dorchester
Weymouth
Bridport
Lyme
Axminster
Honiton
Exeter
Crediton
Okehampton
Launceston
Bodmin
Truro
Falmouth
Penzance
Scilly Is.
Plymouth
Dartmouth
Totness
Kingsbridge
Salcombe
Ilfracombe
Barnstaple
Bideford
Hartland Point
Bristol
Bath
Wells
Glastonbury
Taunton
Bridgewater
Minehead
Dunster
Cardiff
Cowbridge
Llandaff
Caerphilly
Newport
Chepstow
Monmouth
Abergavenny
Brecknock
Hay
Radnor
Presteign
Leominster
Ross
Tenby
Pembroke
Haverfordwest
Milford
Cardigan
Aberystwith
Machynlleth
Montgomery
Welshpool
Llanidloes
Newtown
Denbigh
Ruthin
Wrexham
Flint
Holywell
Mold
Conway
Bangor
Carnarvon
Beaumaris
Holyhead
Anglesea
Caernarvon
Merioneth
Cardigan
Pembroke
Carmarthen
Brecknock
Glamorgan
Monmouth
Radnor
Montgomery
Denbigh
Flint



Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, uſually ſtiled the Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdoms,	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Kent, founded by Hengiſt in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent	Canterbury.
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suſſex	Chicheſter
	Surry	Southwark.
3. Eaſt-Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk	Norwich
	Suffolk	BurySt.Edmonds
	Cambridge	Cambridge
	With the Iſle of Ely	Ely.
4. Weſt-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, which finally ſwallowed up all the other ſtates in 827, and ended at the conqueſt in 1066.	Cornwall	Launceſton
	Devon	Exeter
	Dorſet	Dorcheſter
	Somerſet	Bath
	Wilts	Saliſbury
	Hants	Wincheſter
	Berks	Abingdon
	Lancaſter	Lancaſter
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida, in 574, and ended in 792.	York	York
	Durham	Durham
	Cumberland	Carliſle
	Weſtmoreland	Appleby
	Northumberland, and Scotland to the Firth of Edinburgh	Newcaſtle
6. Eaſt-Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746.	Eſſex	London.
	Middleſex, and part of Hertford	
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874.	Glouceſter	Glouceſter
	Hereford	Hereford
	Worceſter	Worceſter
	Warwick	Warwick
	Leiceſter	Leiceſter
	Rutland	Oakham
	Northampton	Northampton
	Lincoln	Lincoln
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon
	Bedford	Bedford
	Buckingham	Ayleſbury
	Oxford	Oxford
	Stafford	Stafford
	Derby	Derby
	Salop	Shrewſbury
	Nottingham	Nottingham
	Cheſter	Cheſter
	And the other part of Hertford	Hertford.

I have been the more ſollicitous to preſerve thoſe diviſions, as they account for different local cuſtoms, and many very eſſential modes of inheritance, which, to this day, prevail in England, and which took their riſe from different inſtitutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman conqueſt, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middleſex and Cheſhire, are comprehended in ſix circuits, or annual progreſſes of the judges, for adminiſtering juſtice to the ſubjects who are at a diſtance from the capital. Theſe circuits are;

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit.	Eſſex ——	Chelmsford, Colcheſter, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford	Hertford, St. Alban's, Royſton, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Biſhops-Stortford, Berkhamſted, Hemſted, and Barnet.
	Kent —	Maidſtone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rocheſter, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feverſham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerneſs, Tunbridge, Margate, Graveſend, and Milton.
	Surry —	Southwark, Kingſton, Guildford, Croydon, Epſom, Richmond, Wanſworth, Batterſea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagſhot, Egham, and Darking.
	Suſſex —	Chicheſter, Lewes, Rye, Eaſt-Grinſtead, Haſtings, Horſham, Midhurſt, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelſea, Battel, Brighthelmſtone, and Petworth.
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Bucks —	Ayleſbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great-Marlow, Stony Stratford, and Newport-Pagnel.
	Bedford —	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunſtable, Luton, and Biggleſwade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmancheſter, St. Neot's, Ramſey, and Yaxley.
	Cambridge	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royſton, and Wiſbich.
	Suffolk —	Bury, Ipſwich, Sudbury, Leoſtoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Haleſworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Franglingham, Stow-market, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Eaſterbergholt.
	Norfolk —	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
3. Oxford Circuit.	Oxon —	Oxford, Banbury, Chippingnorton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorcheſter, Woodſtock, and Tame.
	Berks —	Abingdon, Windſor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farrington, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Glouceſter	Glouceſter, Tewkſbury, Cirenceſter, part of Briſtol, Campden, Stow, Berkley, Durſley, Leechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marſhfield.
	Worceſter	Worceſter, Eveſham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminſter, and Perſhore.
	Monmouth	Monmouth, Chepſtow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford	Hereford, Lemſter, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Roſs.
	Salop —	Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Biſhop's-caſtle, Witchurch, Oſweſtry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford —	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcaſtle under Line, Woolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Utoxeter, and Stone.
4. Midland Circuit.	Warwick	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulceſter, Nuneaton, and Atherton.
	Leiceſter	Leiceſter, Melton-Mowbray, Aſhby de la Zouch, Boſworth, and Harborough.
	Derby —	Derby, Cheſterfield, Workſworth, Bakewel, and Balſover.
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, Eaſt and Weſt Redford, Manſfield, Tuxford, Workſop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln	Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimſby, Gainſborough, Louth, and Horncaſtle.
	Rutland —	Oakham and Uppingham.
	Northampt.	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thorpſton, Towceſter, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
5. Weſtern Circuit.	Hants —	Wincheſter, Southampton, Portſmouth, Andover, Baſingſtoke, Chriſtchurch, Petersfield, Lyming-

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
		ton, Ringwood, Rumſey, Arlesford; and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the Iſle of Wight.
	Wilts —	Saliſbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmſbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminſter.
	Dorſet —	Dorcheſter, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftsbury, Pool, Blandford, Bridport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
	Somerſet —	Bath, Wells, Briſtol in part, Taunton, Bridgwater, Ilcheſter, Minehead, Milbourn-Port, Glaſtenbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunſter, Watchet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croſcomb, and Froome.
5. Weſtern Circuit continued.	Devon —	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnſtaple, Bideford, Tiverton, Dartmouth, Taviſtock, Topſham, Okehampton, Aſhburton, Credeton, Moulton, Torrington, Totneſs, Axminſter, Plympton, Honiton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall —	Launceſton, Falmouth, Truro, Saltaſh, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padſtow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leſkard, Leſtwithiel, Helſton, Penzance, and Redruth.
	York —	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaſter, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, Burlington, Knareſborough, Barneſley, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaſter, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirſke, Giſborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
6. Northern Circuit.	Durham —	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Caſtle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Awkland.
	Northumb.	Newcaſtle, Tinmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaſter	Lancaſter, Mancheſter, Preſton, Liverpoole, Wiggan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormſkirk, Hawkſhead, and Newton.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
6. Northern Circuit continued.	Weſtmorel.	Appleby, Kendal, Lonſdale, Kirkby-Stephen, Orton, Amblefide, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland	Carliſle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglaſs, Egremont, Keſwick, Workington, and Jerby.

Middleſex is not comprehended; and Cheſhire is left out of theſe circuits, becauſe, being a county palatine, it enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The ſame may be ſaid of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

Counties exclusive of the Circuits.	Middleſex	LONDON, firſt meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Weſtminſter, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelſea, Highgate, Hampſtead, Kenſington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
	Cheſhire —	Cheſter, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodiſham, and Haulton.

CIRCUITS OF WALES.

North-East Circuit.	Flint —	Flint, St. Aſaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh —	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgomery	Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welchpool.
North-Weſt Circuit.	Angleſey	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullilly.
	Merioneth	Delgelly, Bala, and Harlegh.
South-East Circuit.	Radnor —	Radnor, Preſtean, and Knighton.
	Brecon —	Brecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swanſey.
South-Weſt Circuit.	Pembroke	St. David's, Haverfordweſt, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiſcard, and Milfordhaven.
	Cardigan	Cardigan, Aberiſtwith, and Llanbadarn-vawr.
	Caermarth.	Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanimdovery, Llandilovawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy.

In ENGLAND.

40 Counties, which ſend up to parliament	—	80 knights.
25 Cities (Ely none, London four)	—	50 citizens.
167 Boroughs, two each	— — —	334 burgeſſes.
5 Boroughs, (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Highham-Ferrars, and Monmouth) one each	— —	5 burgeſſes.

	Brought over,	469
2 Univerſities		4 repreſentatives.
8 Cinque ports, (Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford) two each		16 barons.

WALES.

12 Counties	12 knights.
12 Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none) one each	12 burgeſſes.

SCOTLAND.

33 Shires	30 knights.
67 Cities and Boroughs	15 burgeſſes.
Total	558

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER. The ſoil of England and Wales differ in each county, not ſo much from the nature of the ground, though that muſt be admitted to occaſion a very conſiderable alteration, as from the progreſs which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of land and garden, the draining of marſhes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China. To enter upon particular ſpecimens and proofs of theſe improvements, would requre a large volume of itſelf. All that can be ſaid therefore is in general, that if no unkindly ſeaſons happen, England produces corn not only ſufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring immenſe ſums of ready money for her exports. The benefit, however, from thoſe exports have ſometimes tempted the inhabitants to carry out of the kingdom more grain than could be conveniently ſpared, and have laid the poor under diſtreſs; for which reaſon exportations have been ſometimes checked by government. No nation in the world exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to ſuch perfection, that the rareſt of foreign fruits have been cultivated there, and that with ſucceſs. If any farther proof of this ſhould be required, let it be remembered, that London, and its neighbourhood, though peopled by about 1,000,000 inhabitants, is plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of roots, fruits, and kitchen-ſtuff from grounds within 12 miles diſtance.

The ſoil of England ſeems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber, and the plantations of trees round the houſes of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peaſants, are delightful and aſtoniſhing at the ſame time. Some have obſerved a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the vaſt fleets that England put to ſea; but as no public complaints of that kind have been heard, it may be ſuppoſed that great ſtores are ſtill in reſerve, unleſs it may be thought that our ſhip-yards are partly ſupplied from America or the Baltic.

As to air, I can add but little to what I have already ſaid concerning the climate. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by weſterly winds, but they are ventilated by winds and ſtorms, ſo that in this reſpect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate conſtitutions, more diſagreeable than unſalubrious. It can-

not, however, be denied, that in England the weather is ſo exceſſively capricious, and unfavourable to certain conſtitutions, that many of the inhabitants are obliged to fly to foreign countries, for a renovation of their health. Many, eſpecially foreigners, have attributed that remarkable ſelf-diſſatisfaction of the Engliſh, which too often proceeds to acts of ſuicide, to their air and climate; but however theſe may operate, the evil probably lies in the people's manner of living, which is more groſs and luxurious, than that of any other nation.

After what we have obſerved in the Engliſh air, the reader may form ſome idea of its ſeaſons, which are ſo uncertain, that they admit of no deſcription. Spring, ſummer, autumn, and winter, ſucceed each other, but in what month their different appearances take place, is very undetermined. The ſpring begins ſometimes in February, and ſometimes in April. In May the face of the country is as often covered with hoary froſt as with bloſſoms. The beginning of June is often as cold as the middle of December, yet ſometimes the thermometer riſes in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even Auguſt has its viciſſitudes of heat and cold, and upon an average September, and next to it October, bid very fair to be the two moſt agreeable months in the year. The natives ſometimes experience all the four ſeaſons within the compaſs of one day, cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. After ſaying thus much, it would be in vain to attempt any farther deſcription of the Engliſh ſeaſons. Their inconſtancy, however, are not attended with the effects that may be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, very ſeldom three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth: and it is generally obſerved, that the inhabitants ſeldom ſuffer by a hot ſummer. Even the greateſt irregularity, and the moſt unfavourable appearances of the ſeaſons, is not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very ſeldom with ſcarcity. Perhaps this, in a great meaſure, may be owing to the vaſt improvements of agriculture, for when ſcarcity itſelf has been complained of, it generally, if not always proceeded from the exceſſive exportations of grain, on account of the drawback, and the profit of the returns.

In ſpeaking of water, I do not intend to include rivers, brooks, or lakes; I mean waters for the common conveniencies of life, and thoſe that have mineral qualities. The champain parts of England are generally ſupplied with excellent ſprings and fountains, though a diſcerning palate may perceive, that they commonly contain ſome mineral impregnation. In many high lying parts of the country, the inhabitants are greatly diſtreſt for water, and ſupply themſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The conſtitutions of the Engliſh, and the various diſeaſes to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquiſitive after ſalubrious waters, for the recovery and preſervation of their health, ſo that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The moſt celebrated are the hot baths of Bath and Briſtol, in Somerſetſhire, and of Buxton, in Derbyſhire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epſom, Dulwich, Acton, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea water is uſed as commonly as any other for medicinal purpoſes, and ſo delicate are the tones of the Engliſh fibres, that the patients can perceive both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the ſea-water of one coaſt, and that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY AND MOUNTAINS. The induſtry of the Engliſh is, and has been ſuch as to ſupply the abſence of thoſe favours which nature has ſo laviſhly beſtowed upon ſome foreign climates,

and

and in many reſpects even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful ſcenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently ſwelling, and both of them forming proſpects equal to the moſt luxuriant imagination, the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of incloſures and plantations, the noble ſeats, comfortable houſes, chearful villages, and well-ſtocked farms, often riſing in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the moſt vivid colours of nature, are inexpreſſible. The moſt barren ſpots are not without their verdure, but nothing can give us a higher idea of the Engliſh induſtry, than by obſerving that ſome of the moſt beautiful counties in the kingdom, are naturally the moſt barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be ſafely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its proſpects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though England is full of delightful riſing grounds, and the moſt enchanting ſlopes, yet it contains few mountains. The moſt noted are the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worceſterſhire, Cotſwold in Glouceſterſhire, the Wrekin in Shropſhire; with thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowden in Wales. In general, however, Wales, and the northern parts, may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence; the Thames, the nobleſt perhaps in the world, riſes on the confluence of Glouceſterſhire, and after receiving the many tributary ſtreams of other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windſor. From thence to Kingſton, where formerly it met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſtminſter-bridge, is ſaid to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it widens in its progreſs, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ſhips to London-bridge; but for a more particular deſcription the reader muſt conſult the map. It was formerly a matter of reproach to England, among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have ſo few bridges; thoſe of London and Kingſton (which is of wood) being the only two it had from the Nore, to the laſt mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials for building ſtone bridges; but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the Engliſh, in former days, had for water carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The vaſt increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland trade, are now multiplying bridges, and ſome think the world cannot parallel for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected at Weſtminſter, and Black Friars. Putney, Kew, and Hampton-court, have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames, and others are projecting by public ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on both ſides.

The river Medway, which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the mouth of the Thames at Sheerneſs, and is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham, where the men of war are laid up. The Severn, reckoned the ſecond river for importance in England, and the firſt for rapidity, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welch-Pool; runs eaſt to Shrewſbury; then turning ſouth, viſits Bridgenorth, Worceſter, and Tewkeſbury, where it receives the Upper Avon; after having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt direction; is near its mouth

mouth increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol-Channel, near King-road; and there the great ſhips, which cannot get up to Briſtol, lie. The Trent riſes in the Moorlands of Staffordſhire, and running ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle-under-line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-eaſt on the confines of Derbyſhire, viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnſhire, and being joined by the Ouſe, and ſeveral other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the ſea ſouth-eaſt of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England, are the Ouſe (which is a Gaelic word ſignifying water in general) which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls into the ſea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tine runs from weſt to eaſt through Northumberland, and falls into the German ſea at Tinmouth below Newcaſtle. The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham from Yorkſhire, and falls into the German ſea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from weſt to eaſt on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German ſea at Berwick. The Eden runs from ſouth to north through Weſtmoreland and Cumberland, and paſſing by Carliſle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through Wiltſhire to Bath, and then dividing Somerſetſhire from Glouceſterſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberland, and paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and paſſing by Preſton, diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. The Merſey, which runs from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt through Cheſhire, and then dividing Cheſhire from Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below that town; and the Dee riſes in Wales, and divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh channel below Cheſter.

The lakes of England are but few, though it is plain from hiſtory and antiquity, and indeed, in ſome places from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been very frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land by induſtry. The chief lakes now remaining, are Soham mere, Wittleſea mere, and Ramſay mere, in the iſle of Ely, in Cambridgeſhire. All theſe meres in a rainy ſeaſon are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Weſtmoreland, and ſome ſmall lakes in Lancaſhire, go by the name of Derwent waters.

Forests.] The firſt Norman kings of England, partly for political purpoſes, that they might the more effectually enſlave their new ſubjects, and partly from the wantonneſs of power, converted immenſe tracts of ground into foreſts, for the benefit of hunting, and theſe were governed by laws peculiar to themſelves, ſo that it was neceſſary, about the time of paſſing the Magna Charta, to form them into a ſort of code, called the foreſt-laws; and juſtices in Eyre, ſo called from their ſitting in the open air, were appointed to ſee them obſerved. By degrees thoſe vaſt tracts were diſforeſted, and the chief foreſts, properly ſo called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are thoſe of Windſor, New Foreſt, the Foreſt of Dean, and Sherwood Foreſt. Thoſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, aſh, and beech, beſides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods,

if not foreſts of cheſnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpoſes of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtand-ing, in which the cheſnut beams and roofs remain ſtill freſh and unde-cayed, though ſome of them above 600 years old.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall deſervedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phenicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before that of the Chriſtian Æra; and ſince the Engliſh have found the method of manufacturing their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immenſe benefit to the nation. An ore called Mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded, till about 60 years ago, Sir Gilbert Clark diſcovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000 l. a year, and to equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making braſs. Thoſe tin-works are un-der peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws, and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Corniſh miners alone are ſaid to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewiſe been diſcovered in Cornwall, and the Engliſh lead is impregnated with ſilver. The Engliſh coined ſilver is par-ticularly known by roſes, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of fea-thers. Devonſhire, and other counties of England, produces marble, but the beſt kind, which reſembles Egyptian granite, is exceſſively hard to work. Quarries of freeſtone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheſhire yield allum and ſalt pits. The Engliſh fullers earth is of ſuch infinite conſequence to the cloathing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under the ſevereſt penalties. Pit and ſea coal is found in many counties of England, but the city of London, to encourage the nurſery of ſeamen, is chiefly ſupplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the biſhopric of Durham. The cargoes are ſhipped at Newcaſtle and Sunder-land, and the exportation of coals to other countries, is a valuable article.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } This is ſo copious an article, and ſuch improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, ever ſince the beſt printed accounts we have had of both, that much muſt be left to the reader's own obſervation and experience. I have already touched, in treating on the ſoil, upon the corn-trade of England, but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty con-cerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other horſe grain growing in the kingdom. Excellent inſtitutions for the improvement of agriculture, are now common in England, and the members are ſo public ſpirited as to print periodical accounts of their diſ-coveries and experiments, which ſerve to ſhew that both agriculture and gardening can admit to be carried to a much higher ſtate of perfection than they are in at preſent. Honey and ſaffron are natives of England. It is almoſt needleſs to mention to the moſt uninformed reader, in what plenty the moſt excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooſeberries, raſberries, and other hortu-lane productions, grow here, and what vaſt quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in ſome counties. The cyder, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention thoſe improvements, did we not obſerve that the na-tives of England have made the different fruits of all the world their own

ſometime

ſometimes by ſimple culture, but often by hot beds, and other means of forcing nature. The Engliſh pine-apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The ſame may be ſaid of other natives of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Perſia, and Turkey. The Engliſh grapes are pleaſing to the taſte, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine, and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raiſed here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all ſorts of greens, roots, and ſallads, in perfection, ſuch as artichokes, aſparagus, cauliflowers, cabbage, coleworts, brocoli, peas, beans, kidney-beans, ſpinage, beets, lettuce, cellary, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, muſhrooms, leeks, onions and ſhallots.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire, as hemp and flax is in other counties. In nothing, however, have the Engliſh been more ſucceſsful, than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, ſaintfoin, lucern, and other meliorating graſſes for the ſoil. It belongs to a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary herbs, ſhrubs and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The ſoil of Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which is now become a very conſiderable article of trade.

With regard to animal productions, I ſhall begin with the quadrupeds. The Engliſh oxen are large and fat, but ſome prefer for the table the ſmaller breed of the Scotch, and the Welſh cattle, after grazing in Engliſh paſtures. The Engliſh horſes, upon the whole, are the beſt of any in the world, whether we regard their ſpirit, ſtrength, ſwiftneſs, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken by all ranks, from the monarch down to the peaſant, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the ſucceſs has been anſwerable, for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of the Indian, Perſian, Arabian, Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes. It is no uncommon thing for an Engliſh horſe, mare, or gelding, though not of the race kind, to run above 20 miles within the hour, and they have been known to do it in a carriage. The irreſiſtible ſpirit and weight of the Engliſh cavalry, renders them the beſt in the world in war: and an Engliſh hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or ſtag-chace. Thoſe which draw the equipages on the ſtreets of London, are particularly beautiful, and a ſet often coſts 1000l. a ſtronger and a heavier breed is employed for other draughts. I muſt not omit that the exportation of horſes to France, and other countries, where they ſell for large prices, has of late become a conſiderable article of commerce. It is hard to ſay how far this traffic with our natural enemies is allowable, but there is certainly leſs danger attending it, as the animals are commonly gelded. The breed of aſſes and mules begin likewiſe to be improved and encouraged in England.

The Engliſh ſheep are of two kinds, thoſe that are valuable for their fleece, and thoſe that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces conſtitute the original ſtaple commodity of England. I have been credibly informed, that in ſome counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in thoſe of their horſes and dogs, and that in Lincolnſhire, particularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of thoſe animals to ſell for 30 l. It muſt, however, be owned, that thoſe large fat ſheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England twelve millions of fleeces are ſhorn annually, which at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,000 l. It is ſuppoſed, however, that by the

fall of the value of the fleeces, a fourth part of this ſum ought to be deducted at preſent. The other kind of ſheep, which are fed upon the downs, ſuch as thoſe of Banſtead, Bagſhot-heath, and Devonſhire, where they have, what the farmers call, a ſhort bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and ſweetneſs to veniſon.

The Engliſh maſtiffs and bulldogs, are the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt of the canine ſpecies in the world, but either from the change of ſoil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two Engliſh bulldogs, upon one of his moſt terrible lions in the tower, and they laid him on his back. The maſtiff, however, is the preferable creature, having all the courage of the bulldog, without its ferocity, and he is particularly diſtinguiſhed for his fidelity and docility. All the different ſpecies of dogs, which abound in other countries (and are needleſs to be enumerated here) for the field, as well as domeſtic uſes, are to be found in England.

What I have obſerved of the degeneracy of the Engliſh dogs in foreign countries, is applicable to the Engliſh game-cocks, which afford much barbarous diverſion to our ſportſmen. The courage and ferocity of thoſe birds is aſtoniſhing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this generous animal, are likewiſe extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are pretty much the ſame in England, as in other countries; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, ſuch as cocks, pullets, and capons, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild ſort are buſtards, wild geeſe, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks in the ſeaſon, growſe, quail, lanrail, ſnipe, woodpigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws and jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, gold-finches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of ſmall birds, particularly canary birds, which breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its fleſh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better ſupplied than England with river and ſea-fiſh. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of ſalmon, trouts, eels, pike, perch, ſmelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fiſh, beſides a delicate lake fiſh, called char, which is found in ſome freſh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and as ſome ſay no where elſe. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, ſkaite, ſoles. The John Dory, found towards the weſtern coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fiſh are found on the ſame coaſts. As to ſhell-fiſh, they are chiefly oyſters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobſters, crabs, and ſhrimps, and eſcallops, one of the moſt delicious of ſhell-fiſhes, cockles, wilks, or periwinkles, and muſcles, with many other ſmall ſhell-fiſh, abound in the Engliſh ſeas. The whales chiefly viſit the northern coaſt, but great numbers of porpuſſes and ſeals appear in the channel. After all, the Engliſh have been, perhaps, with great juſtice, accuſed of not paying proper attention to their fiſheries, which are confined to a few inconſiderable towns in the weſt of England. The beſt fiſh that comes to the tables of the great in London, are ſold by the Dutch to Engliſh boats, and that induſtrious people even take them upon the Engliſh coaſts. Great attention, it is true, has been paid within theſe 30 years paſt, by the Engliſh, to this important concern. Many public ſpirited noblemen, and gentlemen,

formed

formed themſelves into a company for carrying on a Britiſh fiſhery. Large ſums were ſubſcribed, and paid with unbounded generoſity. Buſſes and other veſſels were built, and the moſt pleaſing proſpects of ſucceſs preſented themſelves to the public. They were, however, unaccountably diſappointed, though it is hard to ſay from what cauſe, unleſs it was, that the price of Engliſh labour was too dear for bringing the commodity to market, upon the ſame terms as the Dutch, whoſe herrings were actually ſurpaſſed in the curing by the Britiſh.

With regard to reptiles, ſuch as adders, vipers, ſnakes, and worms, and inſects, ſuch as ants, gnats, waſps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the reſt of Europe, and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural hiſtory, than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The exemption of the Engliſh conſtitution, from the deſpotic powers exerciſed in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reaſon why it is very difficult to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England, and yet it is certain that this might occaſionally be done, by parliament, without any violation of public liberty. With regard to political calculations, they muſt be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners, who ſettle in the nation, the evacuations of inhabitants to America, their return from thence, the vaſt numbers of hands employed in ſhipping, and the late demand of men for the Eaſt Indies, and for ſettling our new conqueſts, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, I am apt to think that England is more populous, than the eſtimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The late war, which broke out with France and Spain, annually employed above 200,000 Engliſhmen, excluſive of Scotch and Iriſh, by ſea and land, and in its progreſs carried off, by various means, very near that number. The decay of population was indeed ſenſibly felt, but not in compariſon to what it was during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the ſea and land ſervice. Great-Britain indeed was obliged to furniſh large contingents of men to the confederate army, yet not above half of them were her own ſubjects. I mention thoſe conjectures, partly on the ſtrength of the public accounts, and partly from undiſputed facts, which ſome now alive may remember, as the nobility, and even miniſters of ſtate, often had their ſervants preſſed from behind their coaches, to ſupply the ſea and land-ſervice, an expedient to which we were not reduced in the late war.

At the ſame time I am not of opinion, that England is at preſent naturally more populous, than it was in the reign of Charles I. though ſhe is accidentally ſo. The Engliſh, of former ages, were ſtrangers to the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and other modes of living, that are deſtructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vaſt quantities of cultivated lands in England, ſince thoſe times, undoubtedly muſt have been favourable to mankind, though upon an average, perhaps, a married couple has not ſuch a numerous progeny now, as formerly. I will take the liberty to make another obſervation, which falls within the cognizance of almoſt every man, and that is the incredible increaſe of foreign names upon our pariſh books, and public liſts, compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

After what has been premiſed, it would be preſumptuous to pretend to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales, but in my

own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than ſeven millions, and that they are daily encreaſing. The fallibility of political calculations, appears in a very ſtriking light in thoſe of the population of London, becauſe it is impoſſible to fix it upon any of the known rules or proportions of births and burials. Calculators have been not only miſtaken in applying thoſe rules to London, and, as they are called, the bills of mortality, but even in topical matters, becauſe about 100,000 inhabitants, at the very gates of London, do not lie within the bills of mortality.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons, are generally well-ſized, regularly featured, commonly fair, rather than otherwiſe, and florid in their complexions. It is, however, to be preſumed, that the vaſt numbers of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a caſt to their perſons and complexions, different from thoſe of their anceſtors, 150 years ago. The women, in their ſhapes, features, and complexion, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty; and it has been alſo obſerved, that the women of Lancaſhire and ſome other counties, diſplay a manifeſt ſuperiority in theſe reſpects. But beſides the external graces ſo peculiar to the women in England, they are ſtill more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, and a tender affection for their huſbands and children. Of all people in the world the Engliſh keep themſelves the moſt cleanly. Their nerves are ſo delicate, that people of both ſexes are ſometimes forcibly, nay mortally affected by imagination, inſomuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the ſmall-pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathſome diſeaſe, by its true name, in any polite company.

This over ſenſibility is one of the ſources of thoſe oddities, which ſo ſtrongly characteriſe the Engliſh nation. An apprehenſion of dying a beggar, often kills them in the midſt of plenty and proſperity. They magnify the ſlighteſt appearances into realities, and bring the moſt diſtant dangers immediately home to themſelves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater reſolution, or conſtancy of mind. A groundleſs paragraph, in a news-paper, has been known to affect the ſtocks, and conſequently public credit, to a conſiderable degree, and their credulity goes ſo far, that England may be termed the paradiſe of quacks and empirics, in all arts and profeſſions. In ſhort, the Engliſh feel, as if it really exiſted, every evil in mind, body, and eſtate, which they form in their imagination. At particular intervals, they are ſenſible of this abſurdity, and run into a contrary extreme, ſtriving to baniſh it by diſſipation, riot, intemperance, and diverſions. They are fond, for the ſame reaſon, of clubs, and convivial aſſociations, and when theſe are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the beſt cure for thoſe mental evils, which are ſo peculiar to the Engliſh, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The ſame obſervations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which muſt be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Hanover, eſpecially of late years. The Engliſh nobility and gentry, of great fortunes, now aſſimilate their manners to thoſe of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourſe than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they viſit, under the tuition, perhaps, of a deſpicable pedant, or family dependant. They travel for the purpoſes of ſociety, and at the more advanced ages of life, when

their judgments are mature, and their paſſions regulated. This has enlarged ſociety in England, which foreigners now viſit as commonly as Engliſhmen viſited them, and the effects of the intercourſe become daily more viſible, eſpecially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one ſex.

Such of the Engliſh noblemen and gentlemen, as do not ſtrike into thoſe high walks of life, affect rather what we call a ſnug, than a ſplendid way of living. They ſtudy and underſtand better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houſes, gardens, equipages and eſtates, and they ſpare no coſt to purchaſe it. It has, however, been obſerved, that this turn renders them leſs communicative than they ought to be, but, on the other hand, the few connections they form, are ſincere, chearful, and indiſſoluble. The like habits deſcend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often diſcernible among tradeſmen. This love of ſnugneſs and conveniency, may be called the ruling paſſion of the Engliſh people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours and fatigues, which are incredible. A good œconomiſt, with a briſk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from buſineſs, that is, either to purchaſe an eſtate, or to ſettle his money in the funds. He then commonly reſides in a comfortable houſe in the country, often his native county, buys a good gelding, wears a laced hat, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; his ſtile of living, however, being always judiciouſly ſuited to his circumſtances.

Few people in the world know better than tradeſmen, and men of buſineſs, in England, how to pay their court to their cuſtomers, and employers, nay even by bribes, and ſometimes becoming tributary to their ſervants. Thoſe arts they conſider only as the means of acquiring that independence, the pride of which too commonly leads them into a contrary extreme, even that of thinking themſelves under no obligation from the rules of decency, duty, and ſubordination. This carries them to that petulance, which is ſo offenſive to ſtrangers, and though encouraged through the want of education, has its root in the nobleſt of principles, badly underſtood, I mean that right which the laws of England give to every man over his own property. The ſame laws, at the ſame time, take no cognizance of the abuſe of liberty, if not carried into an actual breach of the peace, ſo that every Engliſhman has a copious range for unpuniſhed ill-manners, and unprovoked inſolence. This licentiouſneſs, or abuſe of freedom, is carried in England to an aſtoniſhing height, and ſeems to be epidemical. It is the only public evil, that inſtead of loſing, gathers ſtrength, and what is to be lamented, its violence is always in proportion to the mildneſs of the government, and its cautious execution of the laws, ſo that it may be properly conſidered as a mode of that riotous diſſipation I have already mentioned.

The over ſenſibility of the Engliſh, is diſcovered in nothing more than in the vaſt ſubſcriptions for public charities, raiſed by all degrees of both ſexes. An Engliſhman feels all the pains which a fellow creature ſuffers, and poor and miſerable objects are relieved in England with a liberality that ſome time or other may prove injurious to induſtry, becauſe it takes from the lower ranks the uſual motives of labour, that they may ſave ſomewhat for themſelves and families, againſt the days of pain or ſickneſs. The very people who contribute to thoſe collections, are aſſeſſed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for a maintenance, inſomuch that there can be no beggar in England but through choice or indolence; and upwards of three millions ſter-

ling is ſaid to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purpoſes. The inſtitutions however of extra-parochial infirmaries, hoſpitals, and the like, are in ſome caſes reprehenſible. The vaſt ſums beſtowed in building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of phyſicians, who thereby acquire credit, which is the ſame as profit, very often begets heats and cabals, which are very different from the purpoſes of diſintereſted charity, owing to the violent attachments and prepoſſeſſions of friends, and too often even to party conſiderations.

Notwithſtanding thoſe noble proviſions which would baniſh poverty from any other country, the ſtreets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of diſtreſs, who beg in defiance of the laws, which render the practice ſeverely puniſhable. This is owing to the manner in which the common people live, who conſider the food to be uneatable, which in other countries would be thought luxurious.

The Engliſh, though iraſcible, are the moſt placable people in the world, and will often ſacrifice part of their intereſt rather than proceed to extremity. They are eaſily prevailed upon to forgive by ſubmiſſion, and they carry this lenity too far, by accepting of profeſſions of ſorrow publiſhed in advertiſements by thoſe who offend them, and who ſeldom are ſincere; nay, often laugh at the eaſineſs of their proſecutors, for diſmiſſing them ſo gently. The unſuſpecting nature of the Engliſh, and their honeſt open manners, eſpecially of thoſe in the mercantile way, render them dupes in ſeveral reſpects. They attend to projectors, and no ſcheme is ſo ridiculous that will not find abettors in England. They liſten to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deſerved or accidental, and generouſly contribute to the relief of the parties even by replacing them, often in a more creditable condition than ever. The loweſt bred of the Engliſh, are capable of thoſe and the like generous actions, but they often make an oſtentatious diſplay of their own merits, which diminiſhes their value. There is among the Engliſh of all ranks, a moſt unpardonable preference given to wealth, over all other conſiderations. Riches, both in public and private, compenſate for the abſence of every good quality. This offenſive failing ariſes partly from the democratical part of their conſtitution, which makes the poſſeſſion of property a qualification for the legiſlature, and almoſt every other ſpecies of magiſtracy, government, honours, and diſtinctions.

The ſame attention to property operates in many other ſhapes among the lower claſſes, who think it gives them a right to be rude and diſregardful of all about them, nor are the higher orders exempt from the ſame failing. The ſame principle often influences their exterior appearances. Noblemen of the firſt rank have been often ſeen laying bets with butchers and coblers at horſe-races and boxing-matches. Gentlemen and merchants of vaſt property are not to be diſtinguiſhed either by their dreſs or converſation from the meaneſt of their ſervants, and a wager offered to be ſtaked in ready money againſt a pennyleſs antagoniſt, is generally a deciſive argument in public company.

An Engliſhman of thorough education and reading, is the moſt accompliſhed gentleman in the world, and underſtands arts and ſciences the beſt. He is however ſhy and retentive in his communications even to diſguſt, and a man may be in company with him for months without diſcovering that he knows any thing beyond the verge of a farm yard, or above the capacity of a horſe jockey. This unamiable coldneſs is ſo far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural conſtitution. Living learning

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and genius meets with very little regard, even from the firſt rate of Engliſhmen: and it is not unuſual for them to throw aſide the beſt productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the ſtate diſtinction of Whig and Tory ſubſiſted, the heads of each party affected to patronize men of literary abilities, but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate, and the very few who met with preferment in the ſtate, might have earned them by a competent knowledge of buſineſs, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally poſſeſs. We ſcarce have an inſtance even in the munificent reign of queen Anne, or of her predeceſſors, who owed ſo much to the preſs, of a man of genius being, as ſuch, made eaſy in his circumſtances. Mr. Addiſon had about 300 l. a year of the public money to aſſiſt him in his travels, and Mr. Pope though a Roman catholic was offered, but did not accept of, the like penſion from Mr. Craggs, the whig ſecretary of ſtate, when it was remarked that his tory friend and companion the earl of Oxford, when ſole miniſter, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papiſt. This reproach upon governmental munificence is now wearing off under the patronage of his majeſty and his miniſters.

The unevenneſs of the Engliſh in their converſation is very remarkable: ſometimes it is delicate, ſprightly, and replete with true wit; ſometimes it is ſolid, ingenious, and argumentative; ſometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon diſguſt, and all in the ſame perſon. In their convivial meetings they are generally noiſy, and their wit is often offenſive, while the loudeſt are the moſt applauded. Courage is a quality that ſeems to be congenial to the Engliſh nation. Boys, before they can ſpeak, diſcover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fiſts; a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the Engliſh, and is ſeconded by a ſtrength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the Engliſh ſoldiers an infinite ſuperiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet ſcrewed upon the muſket. The Engliſh courage has likewiſe the property, under able commanders, of being equally paſſive as active. Their ſoldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger, but when they deliver it, it has a moſt dreadful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The Engliſh are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others, and in the mechanical arts, they excel all nations in the world. The intenſe application which an Engliſhman gives to a favourite ſtudy is incredible, and, as it were, abſorbs all his other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſences that are to be found in the nation.

All I have ſaid concerning the Engliſh, is to be underſtood of them in general, as they are at preſent, for it is not to be diſſembled that every day produces ſtrong indications of great alterations in their manners. The vaſt fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immenſe acquiſitions of territory by peace, and above all the amazing encreaſe of territorial as well as commercial property in the Eaſt Indies, have introduced a ſpecies of people among the Engliſh, who have become rich without induſtry, and by diminiſhing the value of gold and ſilver have created a new ſyſtem of finances in the nation. Time alone can ſhew the event: Hitherto the conſequences ſeem to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a ſpirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the moſt fatal effects, and an emula-

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tion among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal, or ſurpaſs the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of buſineſs which prevailed ſo lately as the acceſſion of the preſent family to the crown, are now diſregarded for taſteleſs extravagance in dreſs and equipage, and the moſt expenſive amuſements and diverſions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even the cuſtoms of the Engliſh have, ſince the beginning of this century, undergone an almoſt total alteration. Their antient hoſpitality ſubſiſts but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occaſions. Many of their favourite diverſions are now diſuſed. Thoſe remaining are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and ſometimes maſquerades in or near London; but concerts of muſic, and card and dancing aſſemblies are common all over the kingdom. I have already mentioned ſtag and fox hunting and horſe-races, of which the Engliſh of all denominations are fond, even to infatuation. Somewhat however may be offered by way of apology for thoſe diverſions: The intenſe application which the Engliſh give to buſineſs, their ſedentary lives, and luxurious diet require exerciſe, and ſome think that their excellent breed of horſes is encreaſed and improved by thoſe amuſements. The Engliſh are remarkably cool, both in loſing and winning at play, but the former is often attended with acts of ſuicide. An Engliſhman will rather murder himſelf than bring a ſharper, who he knows has fleeced him, to condign puniſhment, even though warranted by law. Next to horſe-racing, and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diverſion, among the great, as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both aſſemble round the pit, at one of thoſe matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of the generous animal, every ſpectator being concerned in a bet, ſometimes of high ſums. The athletic diverſion of cricket is ſtill kept up in the ſouthern and weſtern parts of England, and is ſometimes practiſed by people of the higheſt rank. It is performed by a perſon who with a clumſy wooden bat, defends a wicket raiſed of two ſlender ſticks, with one acroſs, which is attacked by another perſon, who endeavours to beat it down with a hard leather ball, from a certain ſtand. The farther the diſtance is to which the ball is driven, the oftener the defender is able to run between the wicket and the ſtand. This is called gaining ſo many notches, and he who gets the moſt is the victor. Many other paſtimes are common in England, ſome of them of a very robuſt nature, ſuch as cudgelling, wreſtling, bowls, ſkittles, quoits, and priſon-baſe; not to mention duck-hunting, foot, and aſs-races, dancing, puppet-ſhews, May garlands, and above all, ringing of bells, a ſpecies of muſic, which the Engliſh boaſt they have brought into an art. The barbarous diverſions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England, and equally inhuman, as the ſhews of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, and all places of public diverſions, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diverſions, which are common to other countries, ſuch as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, ſwimming, angling, fowling, courſing, and the like, are familiar to the Engliſh. Two kinds, and thoſe highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them, and theſe are rowing and ſailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged, by his preſent majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be conſidered as a national improvement. The Engliſh are exceſſively fond of ſkaiting, in which, however, they are not very expert, but they are adventurous in it often to the danger and loſs of their lives.

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The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diverſion, though without anſwering the purpoſes of the rich, for the farmers, and the country people, deſtroy the game in their nets, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among ſo free a people as the Engliſh, has been conſidered in various lights.

Dress.] In the dreſs of both ſexes, before the preſent reign of George III. they followed the French; but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at preſent, bid fair to be the dictators of dreſs to the French themſelves, at leaſt with regard to elegance, neatneſs, and richneſs of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both ſexes, appear on high occaſions, in cloth of gold and ſilver, the richeſt brocades, ſattins, ſilks, and velvets, both flowered and plain, and it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all thoſe are diſcouraged. Some of thoſe rich ſtuffs are ſaid to be brought to as great perfection in England, as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt acquiſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt-Indies. The ſame nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions, dreſs like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the fineſt cloth, and the beſt of linen. The full dreſs of a clergyman conſiſts of his gown, caſſock, ſcarf, beaver-hat and roſe, all of black; his undreſs is a dark grey frock, and plain linen. The phyſicians, the formality of whoſe dreſs, in large tie perukes, and ſwords, was formerly remarkable, if not ridiculous, begin now to dreſs like other gentlemen, and men of buſineſs, that is, to wear a plain ſuit of ſuperfine cloth, excellent linen and wigs, that ſuit their complexions, and the form of their faces. Few Engliſhmen, tradeſmen, merchants and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without ſome paſſion for the ſports of the field, on which occaſions they dreſs with remarkable propriety, in a light frock, narrow brimmed hat, a ſhort bob wig, jockey boots, and buckſkin, or ſhag breeches. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; but ſince the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, the dreſſes at court, on ſolemn occaſions, are ſuperb beyond deſcription. Few even of the loweſt tradeſmen, on Sundays, carry about them leſs than 10l. in cloathing, comprehending hat, wig, ſtockings, ſhoes and linen, and even many beggars in the ſtreet appear decent in their dreſs. In ſhort, none but the moſt abandoned of both ſexes are otherwiſe; and the appearance of a man in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his induſtry and morals.

Religion.] Euſebius, and other antient writers, poſitively aſſert, that Chriſtianity was firſt preached in South Britain by the apoſtles and their diſciples. It is unneceſſary to repeat what has been ſaid in the Introduction reſpecting the riſe and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. I ſhall only obſerve in this place, that John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publickly called in queſtion, and boldly refuted thoſe doctrines which had paſſed for certain during ſo many ages; and that the eſtabliſhed religion in England, which took place under Henry VIII. is reformed from the errors of popery, and approaches nearer to the primitive chriſtianity, being equally removed from ſuperſtition and indelicacy in its worſhip, and as void of bigotry, as of licentiouſneſs in its practice. The conſtitution of the church is epiſcopal, and is governed by biſhops, whoſe benefices were converted, by the Norman conqueror, into

into temporal baronies, in right of which, every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy, are now freehold, but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The œconomy of the church of England has been accuſed for the inequality of its livings; ſome of them, eſpecially in Wales, being too ſmall to maintain a clergyman, eſpecially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this, perhaps, is unavoidable, and very probably never can be entirely remedied, though the crown, as well as private perſons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, ſuch as deans, prebends, and the like, have generally large incomes; ſome of them exceeding in value thoſe of biſhoprics, for which reaſon the revenues of a rich deanery, or other living, are often annexed to a poor biſhopric. At preſent, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a moſt flouriſhing ſituation, becauſe the value of their tithes encreaſes with the improvements of lands, which of late has been amazing in England. The ſovereigns of England, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. have been called in public writs, the ſupreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no ſpiritual meaning, as it only denotes the regal power to prevent any eccleſiaſtical differences, or in other words, to ſubſtitute the king in place of the pope, before the reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal œconomy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in eccleſiaſtical diſputes, and are contented to give a ſanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this deſcription, of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbiſhops, and 24 biſhops, beſides the biſhop of Sodor and Man, who not being poſſeſſed of an Engliſh barony, does not ſit in the houſe of peers *. The two archbiſhops, are thoſe of Canterbury and York, who are both dignified with the addreſs of 'your grace.' The former is the firſt peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He takes precedence next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate. He is enabled to hold eccle-

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* To the following liſt, I have ſubjoined the ſum each ſee is charged in the king's books; for though that ſum is far from being the real annual value of the ſee, yet it aſſiſts in forming a comparative eſtimate between the revenues of each ſee with thoſe of another.

ARCHBISHOPRICS,

Canterbury, —	£2682	12	2	York, — —	£1610	0	0

BISHOPRICS,

London, — —	2000	0	0	Chicheſter, — —	677	1	3
Durham, —	1821	1	3	St. Aſaph, —	187	11	8
Wincheſter —	3124	12	8	Saliſbury, — —	1385	5	0
Theſe three biſhoprics take precedency of all others in England, and the others according to the ſeniority of their conſecrations.				Bangor, — —	131	16	3
				Norwich, — —	834	11	7
				Glouceſter, — —	315	7	3
				Landaff, — —	154	14	1
Ely, — —	2134	18	6	Lincoln, — —	894	18	1
Bath and Wells,	533	1	3	Briſtol, — —	294	11	0
Hereford, —	768	11	0	Carliſle, — —	531	4	9
Rocheſter, —	358	4	9	Exeter, — —	500	0	0
Litchfield & Coventry	559	17	3	Peterborough, —	414	14	8
Cheſter, — —	420	1	8	Oxford, — —	381	11	0
Worceſter, — —	929	13	3	St. David's, — —	426	2	1

eccleſiaſtical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cognizable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege conſequently of granting, in certain caſes, licenſes and diſpenſations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Beſides his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Wincheſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield, and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath, and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury has, by the conſtitution and laws of England, ſuch extenſive powers, that ever ſince the death of archbiſhop Laud (whoſe character will be hereafter given) the government of England has thought proper to raiſe to that dignity, none but men of very moderate principles, and of very inoffenſive abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and conſequently of the ſtate.

The archbiſhop of York takes place of all dukes, not of the blood royal, and of all officers of ſtate, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, beſides his own dioceſe, the biſhoprics of Durham, Carliſle, Cheſter, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The biſhops are addreſſed Your lordſhips, ſtiled Right reverend fathers in God, and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have all the privileges of peers, and the biſhoprics of London, Wincheſter, Durham, Saliſbury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to ſupport their prelates in the rank of noblemen. Engliſh biſhops are to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to conſecrate churches and burying-places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirmation. Their juriſdiction relates to the probation of wills; to grant adminiſtration of goods of ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of periſhable goods when no one will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant inſtitutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to viſit their own dioceſes once in three years.

Deans and prebends of cathedrals, have been already mentioned, but it would perhaps be difficult to aſſign their utility in the church, farther than to add to the pomp of worſhip, and to make proviſion for clergymen of eminence and merit. England contains about 60 archdeacons, whoſe office is to viſit the churches twice or thrice every year, but their offices are leſs lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly ſtiled arch preſbyters, who ſignify the biſhop's pleaſure to his clergy, the lower claſs of which conſiſts of pariſh prieſts (who are called rectors or vicars) deacons and curates.

The eccleſiaſtical government of England is, properly ſpeaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national repreſentative or ſynod, and anſwers pretty near to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the ſame time with every parliament, and their buſineſs is to conſider of the ſtate of the church, and to call thoſe to an account who have advanced new opinions, inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some high-flying clergymen, during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. raiſed the powers of the convocation to a height that was inconſiſtent with the principles of religious toleracy, and indeed of civil liberty; ſo that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and of diſſolving

them, and ever ſince they have not been permitted to ſit for any time, in which they could do buſineſs.

The court of arches is the moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of Canterbury, and all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The proceſſes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates, who plead in this court, muſt be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the ſame authority with this, to which the archbiſhop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and adminiſtrations taken out. The court of peculiars, relating to certain pariſhes, have a juriſdiction among themſelves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the biſhop's courts. The ſee of Canterbury has no leſs than 15 of theſe peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its conſiſting of commiſſioners delegated or appointed by the royal commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court. Every biſhop has alſo a court of his own, called the conſiſtory court. Every archdeacon has likewiſe his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is, beyond any other church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character, and it excludes no ſect of Chriſtians from the exerciſe of their reſpective religious worſhip. Without entering upon the motives of its reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain, that epiſcopal government, excepting under the time of uſurpation, has ever ſince prevailed in England. The wiſdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conſpicuous in diſcouraging all religious perſecution and intolerancy, and if religious ſectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the ſame principle that civil licentiouſneſs has prevailed; I mean a tenderneſs in matters that can affect either conſcience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery, in the reign of Henry VIII. and his ſon, and even ſo late as that of Elizabeth, occaſioned an interpoſition of the civil power, for a farther reformation. Thence aroſe the puritans, ſo called from their affecting a ſingular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and ſome of them good patriots. Their deſcendents are the modern preſbyterians, who retain the ſame character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty, only with ſome differences as to church diſcipline, and the modes of worſhip. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan, inſtituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of epiſcopacy, and to veſting the government of the church in a parity of preſbyters. The preſbyterians, however, are now conſidered as being diſſenters. The baptiſts form another ſect of diſſenters. Theſe do not believe that infants are proper objects of baptiſm, and in the baptiſm of adults, they practiſe immerſion into water. Blended with theſe are the independents, but it is hard to ſay what are the particular tenets of thoſe ſects, ſo much have they deviated from their original principles, and ſo greatly do their profeſſors differ from each other. The moderate clergy of the church of England, treat the preſbyterians with affection and friendſhip; and tho' the hierarchy of their church, and the character of biſhops, are capital points in their religion, they conſider their differences wtih the preſbyterians, and even with the baptiſts, as not being very material to ſalvation, nor indeed do many of the eſtabliſhed church think that they are ſtrictly and conſcientiouſly bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the 39 articles, which they are obliged to ſubſcribe before they can enter

enter into holy orders. Some of them have of late contended in writings, that all ſubſcriptions to religious ſyſtems are repugnant to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity, and to reformation.

The methodiſts are a ſect of a late inſtitution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitefield, a divine of the church of England, but it is difficult to deſcribe the tenets of this numerous ſect. All we know is, that they pretend to great fervour and devotion, that their founder, who died lately, thought that the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip, and prayers, whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference, and he accordingly made uſe of both forms. His followers are rigid obſervers of the 39 articles, and many of them profeſs themſelves to be calviniſts. But even this ſect is ſplit among themſelves, ſome of them acknowledging Mr. Whitefield, and others Mr. Weſley, for their leader; not to mention a variety of ſubordinate ſects (ſome of whom are from Scotland) who have their ſeparate followers, both at London, and in the country of England. I am to obſerve, that there ſeems at preſent to be among thoſe ſectaries, and diſſenters, a vaſt relaxation of eccleſiaſtical diſcipline, which is chiefly owing to diſunion among themſelves, and in ſome meaſure to the principle of free thinking, the profeſſors of which are preſbyterians or independents, and conſider all ſyſtems of religious government, and teſts of faith, as ſo many fetters upon reaſon and conſcience.

The quakers form a numerous ſect of diſſenters in England, and perhaps if their profeſt principles were to undergo a very ſtrict examination, they would appear to be founded in free-thinking, though they pretend to be guided by internal revelation, dictated by the ſpirit of God. That revelation, and that ſpirit, however, are juſt what they pleaſe to make them, and if they mean any thing, it is an abſtraction from all ſenſual ideas, in treating of the Chriſtian religion, and its myſteries, for they attempt to allegorize all the facts in the goſpel. They diſclaim all religious creeds made uſe of by other Chriſtians, and all the modes of worſhip practiſed in other churches. They diſregard the authority of the clergy, and refuſe to pay tithes unleſs they are compelled by law. They neither uſe baptiſm, nor partake of the Lord's Supper. They affect a peculiar plainneſs of dreſs, both as to the form and the colours of their cloaths, and they publickly declaim againſt reſiſtance, and the legality of going to war on any account. With regard to the reſurrection of the body, and the doctrines of rewards and puniſhments hereafter, and many other capital points of Chriſtianity, they have not yet explained themſelves authentically.

Were all the other peculiarities of this ſect to be deſcribed, a reader not acquainted with it, would be apt to think it impoſſible, that it ſhould aſſociate with other Chriſtians. Nothing however is more certain, than that quakers are moſt excellent members of the community. The ſtrictneſs of their morality makes amends for the oddities of their principles, and the ſimplicity of their living, for the wildneſs of their opinions. Their œconomy is admirable, for though none of them pretend to any coercive power, yet their cenſures are ſubmitted to as implicitly, as if they were Romiſh bigots under an inquiſition.

The higheſt puniſhment is a kind of excommunication, which I ſhall not pretend to deſcribe, but which is taken off upon repentance and amendment, and the party is readmitted into all the privileges of their body. Their government is truly republican, and admirably well adapted to their

their principles. They have an annual meeting, which is generally held at London, in the month of May, and this is reſorted to by deputies from all parts of Great-Britain, Ireland, Holland, Germany, and the Britiſh plantations. In this meeting is examined the proceedings of their other meetings, which are monthly and quarterly. Indecencies of every kind are cenſured, contributions are received, accounts are examined, and diſcourſes, exhortations, and ſermons are delivered ſuitable to the exigency of the times, and their prevailing vices and immoralities. The good ſenſe for which this ſect is remarkable, renders their leaders more reſpectable, than thoſe which royalty or power appoint over other communities. This, with the mildneſs of their behaviour, ſobriety, and great induſtry, have raiſed them high in the eſteem of the legiſlature, which has even indulged them by admitting of their affirmation, inſtead of an oath in the courts of juſtice.

I ſhall not here enter into their political hiſtory, or in what manner one of their number, William Penn, formed that admirable eſtabliſhment of their order, which ſtill ſubſiſts in Penſylvania. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that it was found by experience, during the two laſt wars with France, that their principles were imcompatible, with either civil or military government; and conſequently, that, unleſs their enemies had been quakers likewiſe, they muſt have been maſters of their country. This created great trouble with the mother country, and it unfortunately happened, that the quakers were as tenacious of their property, as of their principles. Neceſſity and danger, however, at laſt compelled them to contribute for their own defence, by their purſes, though we do not find that they did it in their perſons; from all which it appears that it would be impracticable to form quakers into a civil government of any kind.

The ignorance of Fox, and the firſt leaders of this ſect, led the quakers into a thouſand extravagancies by agitations and convulſions of the body, which they termed the workings of the ſpirit. Barclay, Keith, and ſome other metaphyſical heads, defended the doctrine, though they dropt the ſingularities of the profeſſion. This ſoftened the ridicule of the public, and Barclay's ſucceſſors have omitted in their behaviour and appearance many of thoſe unmeaning ſingularities. The quakers, it is true, in general, ſtill retain the appellation of Friend, inſtead of Sir, and make uſe of Thou and Thee in diſcourſe; neither are they very ready to pull off their hats, by way of civility or reſpect. They know, however, how to accommodate themſelves to the common uſages of life, upon particular emergencies, and the ſingularities of a quaker of addreſs are now but juſt diſcernible, and can give no offence to politeneſs, unleſs they are affected.

It is impoſſible to ſay any thing with certainty concerning the number of quakers in England. In the beginning of the late reign they were eſtimated at 50,000; and I am apt to believe, they are encreaſed, though that encreaſe is not perceptible, by their laying aſide moſt of their ſingularities. The regularity of their meetings is ſurpriſing, and the admonitions which they give to their brethren, by circular letters, from their yearly meetings, are worthy imitation by the moſt civilized government. The payment of tithes is a kind of a ſtanding grievance, becauſe it is renewed every year. They are however ſteady in their oppoſition to it. They who pay them voluntarily, are always cenſured. The books relating to their religion, which they print, muſt be licenſed by a committee before they are diſperſed.

Many

Many families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman catholic religion, and its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Though the penal laws againſt papiſts in England appear at firſt to be ſevere, yet they are executed with ſo much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himſelf under few hardſhips. Legal evaſions are found out for their double taxes, upon their landed property, and, as they are ſubject to none of the expences and troubles (unleſs voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the Engliſh Roman catholics are in general in good circumſtances, as to their private fortunes. The truth is, they know that a change of government, inſtead of bettering, would hurt their ſituation, becauſe it would encreaſe the jealouſy of the legiſlature, which would undoubtedly expoſe them daily to greater burdens, and heavier penalties. This ſenſible conſideration has of late rendered the Roman catholics as dutiful and zealous ſubjects as any his majeſty has, and their intereſt in election of members of parliament, which is conſiderable, has for theſe 30 years paſt, commonly gone for the court. Scarcely any Engliſh Roman catholic, excepting thoſe who were bred, or had ſerved abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745, and though thoſe at home were moſt carefully obſerved, few or none of them were found guilty of diſloyal practices.

I ſhould here take my leave of the ſtate of religion in England, were it not neceſſary to mention thoſe who profeſs no religion at all, and yet have a vaſt influence upon the circumſtances and ſtate of the eſtabliſhed church. Theſe go under the name of Free-thinkers, and they are divided into as many ſects as Chriſtianity itſelf. Arians and Socinians, words well known to imply a diſbelief of the doctrines of the church of England, with regard to the Trinity, ſhelter themſelves under the name of Free-thinkers. The Deiſt ſhakes himſelf looſe of all religious inſtitutions, by pleading Free-thinking. The Fataliſt, who is a branch of deiſm, and in fact ſignifies the ſame as a deiſt, does the like, and what is ſtill worſe, free-living is often the conſequence of free-thinking, as is ſeen in the unbounded diſſipation, debauchery and impiety of its profeſſors. What the effects of this irreligion may prove, is hard to ſay, but it ſeems not to be ſo general at preſent as in any one reign ſince the revolution. This is in a great meaſure owing to the diſcouragement it meets with from the royal example, which has brought an attendance upon religious ordinances into credit, at the court and capital. Another circumſtance, in favour of religion, is the noble proviſion, which the enjoyment of a biſhopric, or a dignified ſtation in the church makes, for the younger ſons of noble families. The bench of biſhops has, at no time ſince the reformation, been poſſeſſed by ſo many men of birth and quality; nor has it ever been known that ſo many young perſons of rank and family, have been educated to the church, as at preſent.

Language.] The Engliſh language is known to be a compound of almoſt every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon, however, predominates, and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To deſcribe it abſtractedly, would be ſuperfluous to an Engliſh reader, but relatively it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expreſſive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spaniſh, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is ſubject, however,

to great provincialities in its accent, for the people of one county can ſcarcely underſtand thoſe of another; but this happens in other countries. People of fortune and education in England, of both ſexes, commonly either ſpeak, or underſtand the French, and many of them, the Italian and Spaniſh; but it has been obſerved, that foreign nations have great difficulty in underſtanding the few Engliſh who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reaſon why that language is diſuſed in England, even by the learned profeſſions.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the ſeat of learning and the Muſes. Her great Alfred cultivated both in the time of the Saxons, when barbariſm and ignorance overſpread the reſt of Europe, nor has there ſince his time been wanting a continual ſucceſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings or ſtudies. Theſe are ſo numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume.

The Engliſh inſtitutions, for the benefit of ſtudy, partake of the character of their learning. They are ſolid and ſubſtantial, and provide for the caſe, the diſencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the convenience of its profeſſors; witneſs the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, inſtitutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were reſpected even amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. The induſtrious Leland, who was himſelf a moving library, was the firſt who made a ſhort collection of the lives and characters of thoſe learned perſons, who preceded the reign of his maſter Henry VIII. among whom he has inſerted ſeveral of the blood royal of both ſexes, particularly a ſon and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the confeſſor, and other Saxon princes, ſome of whom were equally devoted to Mars as the Muſes.

In ſpeaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable, if I ſhould omit the mention of that prodigy of learning, and natural philoſophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in ſcience to the great Bacon, lord Verulam, as the latter was to Sir Iſaac Newton. Among the other curious works aſcribed to him by Leland, we find treatiſes upon the flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, upon metallurgy, upon aſtronomy, coſmography, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford in 1248. The honourable Mr. Walpole has preſerved the memory of ſome noble and royal Engliſh authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muſes, and to his work I muſt refer. Since the reformation, England reſembles a galaxy of literature *, and it is but doing juſtice to the memory of cardinal Wolſey, though otherwiſe a dangerous and profligate miniſter, to acknowledge that both his example and encouragement, laid the foundation of the polite arts, and the revival of claſſical learning in England. As many of the Engliſh clergy had different ſentiments in religious matters, at the time of the reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners, to ſettle in England. Edward VI. during his ſhort life, did a great deal for the encouragement of theſe foreigners, and ſhewed diſpoſitions for cultivating the moſt uſeful parts of learning, had he lived. Learning, as well as liberty, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe in England, during the bloody bigotted reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth, her ſiſter, was herſelf a learned princeſs. She advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities, to high ranks, both in church and ſtate, but

* See the Biographia Britannica.

but ſhe ſeems to have conſidered their literary accompliſhments to have been only ſecondary to their civil. In this ſhe ſhewed herſelf a great politician, but ſhe would have been a more amiable queen, had ſhe raiſed genius from obſcurity; for though ſhe was no ſtranger to Spencer's Muſe, ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be ſo much impoſed upon, by an unfeeling miniſter, that the poet languiſhed to death in obſcurity. Though ſhe taſted the beauties of the divine Shakeſpear, yet we know not that they were diſtinguiſhed by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parſimony was nobly ſupplied by her favourite the earl of Eſſex, the politeſt ſcholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, who were patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England, continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Caſaubon, and other foreign authors of diſtinction, even of different principles. He was himſelf no great author, but his example had a wonderful effect upon his ſubjects, for in his reign were formed thoſe great maſters of polemic divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of knowledge. Nor muſt it be forgot, that the ſecond Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewiſe the patron of Camden, and other hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries, whoſe works are to this day ſtandards in thoſe ſtudies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that Engliſh learning is under great obligations to James I.

His ſon Charles I. had a taſte for the polite arts, eſpecially ſculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts, ſo that had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital, into a ſecond Athens, and the collections he made for that purpoſe, conſidering his pecuniary difficulties, were ſtupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that reſpect, and laid out the amazing ſum of 400,000 l. ſterling, upon his cabinet of paintings and curioſities. The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and by the immenſe acquiſitions he made of antiquities, eſpecially his famous marble inſcriptions, may ſtand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greateſt of the Medicean princes. Charles, and his court, had little or no reliſh for poetry. But ſuch was his generoſity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increaſed the ſalary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Johnſon, from 100 marks to 100 l. per annum, and a tierce of Spaniſh wine; which ſalary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning, and the arts, ſuffered indeed an eclipſe, during the time of the civil wars, and the ſucceeding uſurpation. Many very learned men, however, found their ſituations under Cromwell, though he was no ſtranger to their political ſentiments, ſo eaſy, that they followed their ſtudies, to the vaſt benefit of every branch of learning, and many works of vaſt literary merit, appeared even in thoſe times of diſtraction. Uſher, Willis, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmoleſted by that uſurper, and he would even have filled the univerſities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of ſafety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, eſpecially by the inſtitution of the royal ſociety. The king himſelf was an excellent judge of

thoſe ſtudies, and though irreligious himſelf, England never abounded more with learned and able divines, than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable Paradiſe Loſt by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but ſo little read, that the impreſſion did not pay the expence of 15 l. given by the bookſeller for the copy. The reign of Charles II. notwithſtanding the bad taſte of his court in ſeveral of the polite arts, by ſome is reckoned the Auguſtan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hook, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit aſſumed more majeſty, a better ſtile, and truer energy, than it ever had known before. Claſſic literature recovered many of its native graces, and though England could not under him boaſt of a Jones, and a Vandyke, yet Sir Chriſtopher Wren introduced a more general regularity, than ever had been known before in architecture, and many excellent Engliſh painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) flouriſhed in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewiſe had a taſte for the fine arts, is chiefly diſtinguiſhed in the province of literature, by thoſe compoſitions that were publiſhed by the Engliſh divines againſt popery, and which, for ſtrength of reaſoning, and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. a prince, who neither underſtood, nor loved learning, or genius in any ſhape. It flouriſhed, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the ſoil, in which it had been planted. It has been obſerved, that metaphyſical reaſoning, and a ſqueamiſh ſcepticiſm in religious matters, prevailed too much, and this has been generally attributed to his indifference as to ſacred ſubjects. Argumentation, however, thereby acquired, and has ſtill preſerved a far more rational tone in every province of literature, than it had before, eſpecially in religion and philoſophy.

The moſt uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auſpices of queen Anne, and which put her court, at leaſt, on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Many of the great men, who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were ſtill alive, and in the full exerciſe of their faculties, when a new race ſprung up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addiſon, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verſe and proſe, need but be mentioned to be admired, and the Engliſh were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in ſpeculative matters.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and ſome of them were no mean proficients themſelves. I have already obſerved, that in this reign a poet held the pen of firſt ſecretary of ſtate, though Mr. Addiſon's talents were very inadequate to the poſt, and his temper ſtill more.

Though George II. was himſelf no Mecænas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding, in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced.

produced. The bench of biſhops was never known to be ſo well provided with able prelates, as it was in the early years of his reign, a full proof that his nobility and miniſters were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally ſupplied the coldneſs of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was conſidered as being firſt miniſter, this ſcreen between government and literature, was in a great meaſure removed, and men of genius began then to taſte the royal bounty.

The reign of his grandſon promiſes to renew a golden age to learning and all the arts. The noble inſtitution of a royal academy, and his majeſty's generous munificence to men of merit, in every ſtudy, have already thrown an illuſtrious refulgence round his court, which muſt endear his memory to future generations.

Beſides learning, and the fine arts in general, the Engliſh excel, in what we call, the learned profeſſions. Their courts of juſtice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than thoſe which any other country can boaſt of. A remarkable inſtance of which, occurs in the appointments for the laſt 200 years of their lord chancellors, who hold the higheſt and the moſt uncontroulable judicial ſeat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowledged, by all parties, that during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. The few inſtances that may be alledged to the contrary, fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was cenſured indeed for corrupt practices, but malevolence itſelf does not ſay that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his ſervants. The caſe of one of his ſucceſſors is ſtill more favourable to his memory, as his cenſure reflects diſgrace only upon his enemies, and his lordſhip was, in the eyes of every man of candour and conſcience, acquitted, not only of actual but intentional guilt. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never was accuſed of partiality in the cauſes that came before him as chancellor.

It muſt be acknowledged, that neither pulpit, nor bar-eloquence, has been much ſtudied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The ſermons of their divines are often learned, and always ſound as to the practical and doctrinal part, but the many religious ſects in England, require to be oppoſed rather by reaſoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has however prevailed even among the clergy themſelves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demoſthenes were weakened by thoſe powers of language, with which they are adorned. A ſhort time, perhaps, may remove this prepoſſeſſion, and convince the clergy, as well as laity, that true eloquence is the firſt and faireſt hand-maid of argumentation. The reader, however, is not to imagine that I am inſinuating, that the preachers of the Engliſh church are deſtitute of the graces of elocution; ſo far from that, no clergy in the world can equal them, in the purity and perſpicuity of language, though I think that if they conſulted more than they do the powers of elocution, they would preach with more effect. If the ſemblance of thoſe powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthuſiaſts, are attended with the amazing effects we daily ſee, what muſt not be the conſequence, if they were exerted in reality, and ſupported with ſpirit and learning.

The laws of England are of ſo peculiar a caſt, that the ſeveral pleadings at the bar, do not admit, or but very ſparingly, of the flowers of

ſpeech, and I am apt to think that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner, would make a ridiculous appearance in Weſtminſter-hall. The Engliſh lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well verſed in rhetoric and reaſoning.

Parliamentary ſpeaking not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce ſo many examples of true eloquence, as the Engliſh ſenate in its two houſes, witneſs the fine ſpeeches made by both parties, in parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and thoſe that have been printed ſince the acceſſion of the preſent family.

Medicine and ſurgery, botany, anatomy, and all the arts or ſtudies for preſerving life, have been carried into great perfection by the Engliſh, and every member of the medical profeſſion, is ſure of an impartial hearing at the bar of the public. The ſame may be ſaid of muſic, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechaniſm, are now reduced in England to ſciences, and that too without any public encouragement, but that given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who aſſociate themſelves for that purpoſe. In ſhip-building, clock work, and the various branches of cutlery, they ſtand unrivalled.

UNIVERSITIES.] I have already mentioned the two univerſities of Cambridge and Oxford, which have been the ſeminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, and ſome have ventured to ſay, than all other literary inſtitutions. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which of late years, in ſplendour and architecture, rival the moſt ſuperb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal eaſe and tranquillity enjoyed by thoſe who inhabit them, ſurpaſs all the ideas which foreigners, who viſit them, conceive of literary ſocieties. So reſpectable are they in their foundations, that each univerſity ſends two members to the Britiſh parliament, and their chancellors and officers have ever a civil juriſdiction over their ſtudents, the better to ſecure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed thoſe of many other univerſities. In Oxford there are 20, beſides five halls, that are not endowed, and where the ſtudents maintain themſelves. The colleges of Oxford are Univerſity, founded as ſome ſay by Alfred the Great. Baliol, founded by John Baliol, king of Scots, in 1262. Merton, founded by Walter of Merton, biſhop of Rocheſter, and high chancellor of England, in 1267. Exeter, founded in 1316, by Walter Stapleton, biſhop of Exeter, and lord treaſurer of England. Oriel, founded by Edward II. in the year 1324. Queen's, founded by Robert Eglesfield, chaplain to queen Phillipa, conſort to Edward III. in her honour. New college, founded in 1386, by William of Wickham, biſhop of Wincheſter, but finiſhed by Thomas de Rotheram, archbiſhop of York, and lord high chancellor, in the year 1475. All Souls, founded by Henry Chicheley, archbiſhop of Canterbury, in 1437. Magdalen, was founded by William Patten, alias Wainfleet, biſhop of Wincheſter, and lord chancellor, in the year 1458. Brazen Noſe, founded in 1509, by William Smith, biſhop of Lincoln. Corpus Chriſti, founded in 1516, by Richard Fox, biſhop of Wincheſter. Chriſt Church, founded by cardinal Wolſey, in 1515, but compleated by others, and is now the cathedral of the dioceſe. Trinity, founded by Sir Thomas Pope, ſoon after the reformation. St. John Baptiſt was founded in 1555, by Sir Thomas White, lord mayor of London. Jeſus, was begun by Hugh Price, prebendary of Rocheſter, and appropriated to the Welch. Wadham, ſo called from its founder Nicholas Wadham, of

Somerſet-

Somerſetſhire, Eſq. It was begun by him in the year 1609, but finiſhed after his death, by his lady, in 1613. Pembroke, ſo called in honour of the earl of Pembroke, then lord high chancellor, was founded by Thomas Teſdale, Eſq; and Richard Wrightwick, B. D. in 1624. Worceſter, was erected into a college, by Sir Thomas Cooke of Aſtley, in Worceſterſhire.

To theſe 19 may be added Hertford college, formerly Hart Hall; but a patent having paſſed the great ſeal in the year 1740, for erecting it into a college, that deſign is now carrying into execution.

The five halls are theſe following: Alban hall, Edmund hall, St. Mary's hall, New-inn hall, and St. Mary Magdalen hall.

The colleges of Cambridge are Peter-houſe, founded by Hugh Balſham, prior of Ely, in 1257, who was afterwards biſhop of that ſee. Clare hall, founded in 1340, by a benefaction of lady Elizabeth Clare, counteſs of Alſtor. Pembroke hall, founded ſeven years after, by a counteſs of Pembroke. St. Bennet's, or Corpus Chriſti, founded about the ſame time, by the united guilds, or fraternities of Corpus Chriſti, and the Bleſſed Virgin. Trinity hall, founded by Bateman, biſhop of Norwich, about the year 1548. Gonvil and Caius, founded by Edmund de Gonvil in 1348, completed by biſhop Bateman, and additionally endowed 200 years after, by John Caius, a phyſician. King's college, founded by Henry VI. and completed by his ſucceſſors. Queen's college, was founded by the ſame king's conſort, but finiſhed by Elizabeth, wife to Edward IV. Catharine hall, founded by Richard Woodlark in 1475. Jeſus college, founded by John Alcock, biſhop of Ely, in the reign of Henry VII. Chriſt college was founded about the ſame time, by that king's mother, Margaret, counteſs of Richmond. St. John's college was founded by the ſame lady. Magdalen college was founded by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, in the reign of Henry VIII. Trinity college was founded by Henry VIII. Emanuel college, by Sir Walter Mildmay, in 1584. Sidney college was founded by Thomas Ratcliff, earl of Suſſex, in 1588, and had its name from his wife Frances Sidney.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The antiquities of England are either Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, or Daniſh, and Anglo-Normannic: but theſe, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon antient hiſtory. The chief Britiſh antiquities, are thoſe circles of ſtones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltſhire, which probably were places of ſacred worſhip in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukeley, and others, deſcribed as a regular circular ſtructure. The body of the work conſiſts of two circles, and two ovals, which are thus compoſed. The upright ſtones are placed at three feet and a half diſtance from each other, and joined at top by over-thwart ſtones, with tennons fitted to the mortiſes in the uprights, for keeping them in their due poſition. Some of theſe ſtones are vaſtly large, meaſuring two yards in breadth, one in thickneſs, and above ſeven in height; others are leſs in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chiſſel, and ſomething tapered; but the tranſomes, or overthwart ſtones, are quite plain. The outſide circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter; between which, and the next circle, there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a ſurprizing and awful effect on the beholders. After all the deſcriptions of, and diſſertations upon, this celebrated antiquity, by ingenious writers, it is not to

be denied, that it has given riſe to many extravagant ridiculous conjectures, from the time of Leland, who has been very particular on the ſubject, down to Stukeley, who, on a favourite point of antiquity, ſometimes formed the moſt enthuſiaſtic conjectures. The barrows that are near this monument, were certainly graves of perſons of both ſexes, eminent in peace or war; ſome of them having been opened, and bones, arms, and antient trinkets, found within them.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonehenge, are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland and the iſles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England, conſiſt chiefly of altars, and monumental inſcriptions, which inſtruct us as to the legionary ſtations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of ſome of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the higheſt idea of the civil as well as military policy of thoſe conquerors. Their veſtiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland as beginning at Dover, and paſſing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunſtable, Stratford, Towceſter, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's hill near Shrewſbury, then by Stratton, and ſo through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris called Hermen-ſtreet, paſſed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pomfret to Doncaſter, ſtrikes out to the weſtward, paſſing through Tadcaſter to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-ſtreet. There would, however, be no end of deſcribing the veſtiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which ſerve as foundations to our preſent highways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated Engliſh antiquary, had formed a noble plan for deſcribing thoſe which paſs through Suſſex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out, put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are diſcernible all over England. Their ſituations are generally ſo well choſen, and their fortifications appear to have been ſo complete, that there is ſome reaſon to believe, that they were the conſtant habitations of the Roman ſoldiers in England, though it is certain from the baths and teſſerated pavements, that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers and magiſtrates, lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewiſe been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and caſtles, are blended with thoſe of a later date; and it is difficult for the moſt expert architect to pronounce that ſome halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repoſitories, contain a vaſt number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, that have been found in England; but the moſt amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland, beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Firth, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at firſt conſiſted only of ſtakes and turf, with a ditch, but Severus built it with ſtone forts, and turrets, at proper diſtances, ſo that each might have a ſpeedy communication with the other, and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military high way to the ſouth. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to ſtrike the Scots and Picts with terror, than to give any real ſecurity to the Roman poſſeſſions. In ſome places, the wall, the vallum, and the

the road, are plainly diſcernible, and the latter ſerves as a foundation for a modern work of the ſame kind, carried on at the public expence. A critical account of the Roman antiquities in England, is among the deſiderata of hiſtory, but perhaps it is too great a deſign for any one man to execute, as it cannot be done without viſiting every place, and every object in perſon.

The Saxon antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly in eccleſiaſtical edifices, and places of ſtrength. At Wincheſter is ſhewn the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been diſputed by Cambden, and later writers, perhaps with reaſon; but if it is not Britiſh, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Wincheſter, ſerved as the burial place of ſeveral Saxon kings, whoſe bones were collected together by biſhop Fox, in ſix large wooden cheſts. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity, preſent themſelves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be diſcerned from the Normannic; and the Britiſh muſeum contains ſeveral ſtriking original ſpecimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters ſigned by the king, and his nobles, with a plain croſs inſtead of their names, are ſtill to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witneſs, to his reſpective croſs. The Daniſh erections in England, are hardly diſcernible from the Saxon. The forms of their camps are round, and generally built upon eminences, but their forts are ſquare.

All England is full of Anglo Normannic monuments, which I chuſe to call ſo, becauſe, though the princes, under whom they were raiſed, were of Norman original, yet the expence was defrayed by Engliſhmen, with Engliſh money. York minſter, and Weſtminſter-hall, and abbey, are perhaps the fineſt ſpecimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner, which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals, and old churches in the kingdom, are more or leſs in the ſame taſte, if we except St. Paul's. In ſhort, thoſe erections are ſo common, that they ſcarcely deſerve the name of curioſities. It is uncertain, whether the artificial excavations, found in ſome parts of England, are Britiſh, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old caſtle of Ryegate in Surry, is very remarkable, and ſeems to have been deſigned for ſecreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invaſion. It contains an oblong ſquare hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the ſame rock, for ſitting upon; and tradition ſays, that it was the room in which the barons of England met, during their wars with king John. The rock itſelf is ſoft, and very practicable; but it is hard to ſay, where the excavation, which is continued in a ſquare paſſage, about ſix feet high, and four wide, terminates, becauſe the work is fallen in in ſome places.

The natural curioſities of England are ſo various, that I can touch upon them only in general; as there is no end of deſcribing the ſeveral medicinal waters and ſprings, which are to be found in every part of the country. They have been analyſed with great accuracy and care, by ſeveral learned naturaliſts, who, as their intereſts, or inclinations led them, have not been ſparing in recommending their ſalubrious qualities. England, however, is not ſingular in its medicinal waters, though in ſome countries the diſcovering and examining them is ſcarce worth while. In England, a much frequented well or ſpring, is a certain eſtate to its proprietor. The moſt remarkable of theſe wells have been divided into thoſe

for

for bathing, and thoſe for purging. The chief of the former lie in Somerſetſhire; and the Bath waters are famous through all the world, both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the ſame kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkſhire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epſom and Dulwich in Surry; Acton and Iſlington in Middleſex. Here alſo are many remarkable ſprings; whereof ſome are impregnated either with ſalt, as that at Droitwich in Worceſter; or ſulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancaſhire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropſhire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leiceſterſhire; and a dropping well in the weſt riding of Yorkſhire. And finally, ſome ebb and flow, as thoſe of the peak in Derbyſhire, and Laywell near Torbay, whoſe waters riſe and fall ſeveral times in an hour. To theſe we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's caſtle in Herefordſhire, commonly called Bonewell, which is generally full of ſmall bones, like thoſe of frogs or fiſh, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancaſhire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any ſmell; yet there is ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur iſſuing out with the ſtream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning ſpirits, which laſts ſeveral hours, and emits ſo fierce a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itſelf will not burn when taken out of the well *.

Derbyſhire is celebrated for many natural curioſities. The Man Tor, or Mother Tower, is ſaid to be continually mouldering away, but never diminiſhes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the ſame place: this is a chaſm in the ſide of a mountain, near ſeven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminiſhing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the laſt 80 were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for ſeveral paces, is very low, but ſoon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inſide of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much ſhort of what ſome have aſſerted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimenſion: a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its ſounding ſtream, re-ecchoed on all ſides, very much to the aſtoniſhment of all who viſit this vaſt concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the ſides, have an amuſing effect; for they not only reflect numberleſs rays from the candles carried by the guides, but as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in ſeveral places into various forms, which, with the help of a ſtrong imagination, may paſs for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder, which is, from its hideouſneſs, named the Devil's Arſe, is wide at firſt, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who ſeem in a great meaſure to ſubſiſt by guiding ſtrangers into the cavern, which is croſſed by four ſtreams of water, and then is thought impaſſable. The vault, in ſeveral places, makes a noble appearance, which is particularly beautiful, by being chequered by various coloured ſtones. Theſe are the moſt celebrated natural excavations in England, where they are beheld with great wonder, but are nothing comparable to thoſe that exiſt in Germany, and other parts both of Europe and Aſia.

Some

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which have been ſince dug from under the well, at which time the uncommon warmth ceaſed.

Some ſpots of England are ſaid to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkſhire, are found certain ſtones, reſembling the folds and wreaths of a ſerpent; alſo other ſtones of ſeveral ſizes, and ſo exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broke, do commonly contain the form and likeneſs of ſerpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In ſome parts of Glouceſterſhire, ſtones are found, reſembling cockles, oiſters, and other teſtaceous marine animals. Thoſe curioſities, however, in other countries, would, as ſuch, make but a poor appearance, and even in England they are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

CITIES, TOWNS, PORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. This head is ſo very extenſive, that I can only touch upon objects that can aſſiſt in giving the reader ſome idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

* London, the metropolis of the Britiſh empire, naturally takes the lead in this diviſion; it appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæſar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and ſoon after became the capital of the iſland. It was firſt walled about with hewn ſtones, and Britiſh bricks, by Conſtantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong ſquare, in compaſs about three miles, with ſeven principal gates. The ſame emperor made it a biſhop's ſee; for it appears that the biſhop of London was at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he alſo ſettled a mint in it, as is plain from ſome of his coins.

London, in its large ſenſe, including Weſtminſter, Southwark, and part of Middleſex, is a city of a very ſurprizing extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the moſt extenſive trade. This city, when conſidered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the ſeat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the countries in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which every part ſend their commodities, from whence they again are ſent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages, by land and water, are conſtantly employed; and from hence ariſes that circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a proſperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head, and the moſt diſtant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen; witneſs their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the ſhops of tradeſmen make ſuch a noble and elegant appearance, or are better ſtocked.

It is ſituated on the banks of the Thames, a river, which, though not the largeſt, is the richeſt and moſt commodious for commerce of any in the world. It being continually filled with fleets, ſailing to or from the moſt diſtant climates; and its banks being from London-bridge to Blackwall, almoſt one continued great magazine of naval ſtores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ſhips, for the uſe of the merchants, beſide the places allotted for the building

* London is ſituated in 51° 31′ north latitude, 400 miles ſouth of Edinburgh, and 270 ſouth-eaſt of Dublin; 180 miles weſt of Amſterdam, 210 north-weſt of Paris, 500 ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen, 600 north-weſt of Vienna, 790 ſouth-weſt of Stockholm, 800 north-eaſt of Madrid, 820 north-weſt of Rome, 850 north-eaſt of Liſbon, 1360 north-weſt of Conſtantinople, and 14:½ ſouth-weſt of Moſcow.

building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards lower down the river for the building men of war. As this city is about 60 miles diſtant from the ſea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being ſurprized by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moiſt vapours of the ſea. It riſes regularly from the water-ſide, and extending itſelf on both ſides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from eaſt to weſt in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all ſides, in a ſucceſſion of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country ſeats of gentlemen and tradeſmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of the freſh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of buſineſs. The regard paid by the legiſlature to the property of the ſubject, has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extenſion.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to aſcertain its extent. However, its length from eaſt to weſt, is generally allowed to be above ſeven miles from Hyde-park corner to Poplar, and its breadth, in ſome places three, in other two; and in other again not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almoſt 18 miles. But it is much eaſier to form an idea of the large extent of a city ſo irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion.

Of theſe, beſide St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Weſtminſter, there are 102 pariſh churches, and 69 chapels of the eſtabliſhed religion; 21 French proteſtant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 33 baptiſt meetings; 26 independent meetings; 28 preſbyterian meetings; 19 popiſh chapels, and meeting-houſes for the uſe of foreign ambaſſadors, and people of various ſects; and 3 Jews ſynagogues. So that there are 326 places devoted to religious worſhip, in the compaſs of this vaſt pile of building, without reckoning the 21 out-pariſhes, uſually included within the bills of mortality.

There are alſo in and near this city 100 alms-houſes, about 20 hoſpitals and infirmaries, 3 colleges, 10 public priſons, 15 fleſh-markets; 1 market for live cattle, 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public ſquares, beſide thoſe within any ſingle buildings, as the Temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for companies, 8 public ſchools, called free-ſchools; and 131 charity-ſchools, which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houſes, 5975 ale-houſes; 800 hackney coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 ſtreets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 130,000 dwelling-houſes, containing, as has been already obſerved, about 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late eſtimate, conſume annually the following articles of proviſions.

Black cattle	98,244
Sheep and lambs	711,123
Calves	194,760
Swine	186,932
Pigs	52,000
Poultry, and wild fowl innumerable	
Mackarel ſold at Billingſgate	14,740,000
Oyſters, buſhels	115,536
Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above thoſe brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and ſalt-fiſh	1,398

Butter,

Butter, pounds weight, about	16,000,000
Cheese, ditto, about	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	7,000,000
Barrels of strong beer	1,172,494
Barrels of small beer	798,495
Tons of foreign wines	30,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other distilled waters, above	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	11,000,000

London bridge was first built of stone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in course of time gave rise to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs; from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly since the year 1756, when the houses were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The passage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each side for foot passengers. It crosses the Thames, where it is 915 feet broad, and has at present 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each, but the centre one is considerably larger.

Westminster-bridge is reckoned one of the most compleat and elegant structures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each side is a fine balluſtrade of stone, with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet, having on each side a fine foot way for passengers. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large, and two small arches, all semi-circular, that in the center being 76 feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the 13 great ones, are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000 l. in stone, and other materials, is always under water. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750, at the expence of 389,000 l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars-bridge falls nothing short of that of Westminster, either in magnificence or workmanship; but the situation of the ground on the two shores, obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many unquestionable judges, prefer it to Westminster-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expence of 152,840 l. to be discharged by a toll upon the passengers. It is situated almost at an equal distance between those of Westminster and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and discovers the majesty of St. Paul's in a very striking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular Protestant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross, on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in some respects it is superior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Christopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the same magnitude, that ever was compleated by one man. He lived to a great age, and finished the building 37 years after he himself laid the first stone. It takes up six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million sterling.

Weſtminſter-abbey, or the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothic taſte. It was firſt built by Edward the Confeſſor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the eaſt end of it; this is the repoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility; and here are alſo monuments erected to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, commanders by ſea and land, philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000l. a year, out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inſide of the church of St. Stephen's Walbrook, is admired for its lightneſs and elegance, and does honour to the memory of Sir Chriſtopher Wren. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſteeples of St. Mary-le-Bow and St. Bride's, which are ſuppoſed to be the moſt complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rules for ſuch erections. Few churches in or about London are without ſome beauty. The ſimplicity of the portico in Covent-Garden is worthy the pureſt ages of antient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and ſtriking, could it be ſeen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taſte, and even ſome of the chapels have gracefulneſs and proportion to recommend them. The Banquetting-houſe at Whitehall, is but a very ſmall part of a noble palace deſigned by Inigo Jones, for the royal reſidence, and as it now ſtands, under all its diſadvantages, its ſymmetry, and ornaments, are in the higheſt ſtile and execution of architecture.

Weſtminſter-hall, though on the out-ſide it makes a mean, and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is ſaid to be the largeſt room in the world, it being 220 feet long, and 70 broad. Its roof is the fineſt of its kind that can be ſeen. Here are held the coronation feaſts of our kings and queens; alſo the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas, and above ſtairs, that of the exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being deſtroyed by fire, is juſtly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obeliſks and pillars of the antients, it being 202 feet high, with a ſtair-caſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet ſhort of the top, from whence there are other ſteps, made for perſons to look out at the top of all, which is faſhioned like an urn, with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the Monument, next the ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſufferers by Charles II. and his brother, is emblematically repreſented in bas relief. The north and ſouth ſides of the baſe have each a Latin inſcription, the one deſcribing its dreadful deſolation *, and the other its ſplendid reſurrection; and on the eaſt ſide is an inſcription, ſhewing when the pillar was begun and finiſhed. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by Sir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in 1677, amounted to upward of 13,000l.

The

* Which may be thus rendered: "In the year of Chriſt, 1666, Sept. 2, eaſtward from hence, at the diſtance of 202 feet (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which driven on by a high wind, not only waſted the adjacent parts, but alſo very remote places, with incredible crackling and fury. It conſumed 89 churches, the city-gates, Guildhall, many public ſtructures, hoſpitals, ſchools, libraries, a vaſt number of ſtately edifices, 13,000 dwelling-houſes, and 400 ſtreets. Of the 26 wards

The Royal Exchange is a large noble building, and is ſaid to have coſt above 80,000 l.

We might here give a deſcription of the Tower *, Bank of England, the New-treaſury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horſe-guards at White-hall, the Mews, where the king's horſes are kept; the Manſion-houſe of the

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utterly deſtroyed 15, and left eight others ſhattered and half burnt. The ruins of the city were 436 acres, from the Tower by the Thames ſide to the Temple church; and from the north-eaſt along the wall to Holborn-bridge. To the eſtates and fortunes of the city it was mercileſs, but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things reſemble the laſt conflagration of the world. The deſtruction was ſudden; for in a ſmall ſpace of time the city was ſeen moſt flouriſhing, and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when this fatal fire had baffled all human counſels and endeavours; in the opinion of all, it ſtopped, as it were by a command from heaven, and was on every ſide extinguiſhed."

* In examining the curioſities of the Tower of London, it will be proper to begin with thoſe on the outſide the principal gate; the firſt thing a ſtranger uſually goes to viſit is the wild beaſts; which, from their ſituation, firſt preſent themſelves: for having entered the outer gate, and paſſed what is called the ſpur-guard, the keeper's houſe preſents itſelf before you, which is known by a painted lion on the wall, and another over the door which leads to their dens. By ringing a bell, and paying ſixpence each perſon, you may eaſily gain admittance.

The next place worthy of obſervation is the Mint, which comprehends near one-third of the Tower, and contains houſes for all the officers belonging to the coinage. On paſſing the principal gate you ſee the White Tower, built by William the Conqueror. This is a large, ſquare, irregular ſtone building, ſituated almoſt in the center, no one ſide anſwering to another, nor any of its watch towers, of which there are four at the top, built alike. One of theſe towers is now converted into an obſervatory. In the firſt ſtory are two noble rooms, one of which is a ſmall armoury for the ſea-ſervice, it having various ſorts of arms, very curiouſly laid up, for above 10,000 ſeamen. In the other room are many cloſets and preſſes, all filled with warlike engines and inſtruments of death. Over this are two other floors, one principally filled with arms; the other with arms and other warlike inſtruments, as ſpades, ſhovels, pick-axes, and cheveaux de frize. In the upper ſtory, are kept match, ſheep-ſkins, tanned hides, &c. and in a little-room, called Julius Cæſar's chapel, are depoſited ſome records, containing perhaps the antient uſages and cuſtoms of the place. In this building are alſo preſerved the models of the new-invented engines of deſtruction, that have from time to time been preſented to the government. Near the ſouthweſt angle of the White-Tower, is the Spaniſh armoury, in which are depoſited the ſpoils of what was vainly called the Invincible Armada; in order to perpetuate to lateſt poſterity, the memory of that ſignal victory, obtained by the Engliſh over the whole naval power of Spain, in the reign of Philip II.

You now come to the grand Store-houſe, a noble building, to the northward of the White Tower, that extends 245 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. It was begun by king James II. who built it to the firſt floor; but it was finiſhed by king William III. who erected that magnificent room called the New, or Small Armoury, in which that prince, with queen Mary, his conſort, dined in great form, having all the warrant workmen and labourers to attend them, dreſſed in white gloves and aprons, the uſual badges of the order of maſonry. To this noble room you are led by a folding door, adjoining to the eaſt end of the Tower chapel, which leads to a grand ſtaircaſe of 50 eaſy ſteps. On the left ſide of the uppermoſt landing-place is the work-ſhop, in which are conſtantly employed about 14 furbiſhers, in cleaning, repairing, and new-placing the arms. On entering the armoury, you ſee what they call a wilderneſs of arms, ſo artfully diſpoſed, that at one view you behold arms for near 80,000 men, all bright, and fit for ſervice: a ſight which it is impoſſible to behold without aſtoniſhment; and beſide thoſe expoſed to view, there were, before the late war, 16 cheſts ſhut up, each cheſt holding about 1,200 muſkets. The arms were originally diſpoſed by Mr. Harris, who contrived to place them in this beautiful order, both here and in the guard chamber of Hampton-court. He was a common gun-ſmith; but after he had performed this work, which is the admiration of people of all nations, he was allowed a penſion from the crown for his ingenuity.

Upon the ground floor under the ſmall armoury, is a large room of equal dimenſions with that, ſupported by 20 pillars, all hung round with implements of war. This

room,

the lord-mayor, the Cuſtom-houſe, India-houſe, and a vaſt number of other public buildings; beſides the magnificent edifices raiſed by our nobility; as Charlton-houſe, Marlborough-houſe, and Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's park; the duke of Montague's, and the duke of Richmond's, in the privy-garden; the earl of Cheſterfield's houſe, near Hyde-park; the

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room, which is 24 feet high, has a paſſage in the middle 16 feet wide. At the ſight of ſuch a variety of the moſt dreadful engines of deſtruction, before whoſe thunder the moſt ſuperb edifices, the nobleſt works of art, and number of the human ſpecies, fall together in one common and undiſtinguiſhed ruin; one cannot help wiſhing that thoſe horrible inventions had ſtill lain, like a falſe conception, in the womb of nature, never to have been ripened into birth.

The Horſe Armoury is a plain brick building, a little to the eaſtward of the White Tower; and is an edifice rather convenient than elegant, where the ſpectator is entertained with a repreſentation of thoſe kings and heroes of our own nation, with whoſe gallant actions it is to be ſuppoſed he is well acquainted; ſome of them equipped and ſitting on horſeback, in the ſame bright and ſhining armour they were uſed to wear when they performed thoſe glorious actions that give them a diſtinguiſhed place in the Britiſh annals.

You now come to the line of kings, which your conductor begins by reverſing the order of chronology; ſo that in following them we muſt place the laſt firſt.

In a dark, ſtrong, ſtone room, about 20 yards to the eaſtward of the grand ſtore-houſe, or new armoury, the crown jewels are depoſited. I. The imperial crown, with which it is pretended that all the kings of England have been crowned ſince Edward the Confeſſor, in 1042. It is of gold, enriched with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, ſaphires and pearls: the cap within is of purple velvet, lined with white taffety, turned up with three rows of ermine. They are however miſtaken in ſhewing this as the ancient imperial diadem of St. Edward; for that, with the other moſt ancient regalia of this kingdom, was kept in the arched room in the cloiſters in Weſtminſter Abbey, till the grand rebellion; when in 1642, Harry Martin, by order of the parliament, broke open the iron cheſt in which it was ſecured, took it thence, and ſold it, together with the robes, ſword, and ſcepter, of St. Edward. However, after the reſtoration, king Charles II. had one made in imitation of it, which is that now ſhewn. II. The golden orb or globe, put into the king's right hand before he is crowned; and borne in his left hand with the ſceptre in his right, upon his return into Weſtminſter-Hall after he is crowned. It is about ſix inches in diameter, edged with pearl, and enriched with precious ſtones. On the top is an amethyſt, of a violet colour, near an inch and an half in height, ſet with a rich croſs of gold, adorned with diamonds, pearls, and precious ſtones. The whole height of the ball and cup is 11 inches. III. The golden ſcepter, with its croſs ſet upon a large amethyſt of great value, garniſhed round with table diamonds. The handle of the ſcepter is plain; but the pummel is ſet round with rubies, emeralds and ſmall diamonds. The top riſes into a *fleur de lis* of ſix leaves, all enriched with precious ſtones, from whence iſſues a mound or ball, made of the amethyſt already mentioned. The croſs is quite covered with precious ſtones. IV. The ſcepter with the dove, the emblem of peace, perched on the top of a ſmall Jeruſalem croſs, finely ornamented with table diamonds and jewels of great value. This emblem was firſt uſed by Edward the Confeſſor, as appears by his ſeal; but the ancient ſcepter and dove was ſold with the reſt of the regalia, and this now in the Tower was made after the reſtoration. V. St. Edward's ſtaff, four feet ſeven inches and a half in length, and three inches three quarters in circumference, all of beaten gold, which is carried before the king at his coronation. VI. The rich crown of ſtate, worn by his majeſty in parliament; in which is a large emerald ſeven inches round; a pearl eſteemed the fineſt in the world, and a ruby of ineſtimable value. VII. The crown belonging to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales. The king wears his crown on his head while he ſits upon the throne; but that of the prince of Wales is placed before him, to ſhew that he is not yet come to it. VIII. The late queen Mary's crown, globe, and ſcepter, with the diadem ſhe wore at her coronation with her conſort king William III. IX. An ivory ſcepter, with a dove on the top, made for king James II.'s queen, whoſe garniture is gold, and the dove on the top gold, enamelled with white. X. The *curtana*, or ſword of mercy, which has a blade thirty-two inches long, and near two broad, is without a point, and is borne naked before the king at his coronation, between the two ſwords of juſtice, ſpiritual and

the duke of Devonſhire's, the Earl of Coventry's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's, in Berkeley-Square; Northumberland-houſe, in the Strand; the houſes of the dukes of Newcaſtle and Queenſberry; of lord Bateman; of general Wade in Saville-row; the earl of Granville's, Mr. Pelham's, the duke of Bedford's, and * Montague-

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and temporal. XI. The golden ſpurs, and the armillas, which are bracelets for the wriſts. Theſe, though very antique, are worn at the coronation. XII. The *amputla*, or eagle of gold, finely engraved, which holds the holy oil the kings and queens of England are anointed with; and the golden ſpoon that the biſhop pours the oil into. Theſe are two pieces of great antiquity. The golden eagle, including the pedeſtal, is about nine inches high, and the wings expand about ſeven inches. The whole weighs about ten ounces. The head of the eagle ſcrews off about the middle of the neck, which is made hollow, for holding the holy oil; and when the king is anointed by the biſhop, the oil is poured into the ſpoon out of the bird's bill. XIII. A rich ſalt-cellar of ſtate, in form like the ſquare White Tower, and ſo exquiſitely wrought, that the workmanſhip of modern times is in no degree equal to it. It is of gold, and uſed only on the king's table at the coronation. XIV. A noble ſilver font, double gilt, and elegantly wrought, in which the royal family are chriſtened. XV. A large ſilver fountain, preſented to king Charles II. by the town of Plymouth, very curiouſly wrought; but much inferior in beauty to the above. Beſides theſe, which are commonly ſhewn, there are in the jewel office, all the crown jewels worn by the prince and princeſſes at coronations, and a great variety of curious old plate.

The Record Office conſiſts of three rooms, one above another, and a large round room, where the rolls are kept. Theſe are all handſomely wainſcoted, the wainſcot being framed into preſſes round each room, within which are ſhelves, and repoſitories for the records; and for the eaſier finding of them, the year of each reign is inſcribed on the inſide of theſe preſſes, and the records placed accordingly. Within theſe preſſes, which amount to 56 in number, are depoſited all the rolls, from the firſt year of the reign of king John, to the beginning of the reign of Richard III. but thoſe after this laſt period are kept in the rolls chapel. The records in the Tower, among other things, contain, the foundation of abbies, and other religious houſes; the ancient tenures of all the lands in England, with a ſurvey of the manors; the original of laws and ſtatutes; proceedings of the courts of common law and equity; the rights of England to the dominion of the Britiſh ſeas; leagues and treaties with foreign princes; the atchievements of England in foreign wars; the ſettlement of Ireland, as to law and dominion; the forms of ſubmiſſion of ſome Scottiſh kings, for territories held in England; ancient grants of our kings to their ſubjects; privileges and immunities granted to cities and corporations during the period above-mentioned; enrollments of charters and deeds made before the conqueſt; the bounds of all the foreſts in England, with the ſeveral reſpective rights of the inhabitants to common paſture, and many other important records, all regularly diſpoſed, and referred to in near a thouſand folio indexes. This office is kept open, and attendance conſtantly given, from ſeven o'clock till one, except in the months of December, January and February, when it is open only from eight to one, Sundays and holidays excepted. A ſearch here is half a guinea, for which you may peruſe any one ſubject a year.

* The Britiſh Muſeum is depoſited in Montague houſe. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the Britiſh Muſeum; for its being eſtabliſhed by parliament, was only in conſequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural hiſtory, his large library, and his numerous curioſities, which coſt him 50,000 l. to the uſe of the public on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000 l. to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuſcripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchaſed likewiſe by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majeſty, in conſideration of its great uſefulneſs, was graciouſly pleaſed to add thereto, the royal libraries of books and manuſcripts collected by the ſeveral kings of England.

The Sloanian collection conſiſts of an amazing number of curioſities; among which are, the library, including books of drawings, manuſcripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals, and coins, ancient and modern, 23,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals 268. Veſſels, &c. of agate, jaſper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious ſtones, agates, jaſper, &c. 2,256. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Cryſtals, ſpars, &c. 1,864. Foſſils, flints, ſtones, 1,275. Earths, ſands, ſalts,

tigue-houſe, in Bloomſbury; the two houſes lately erected by Mr. Tuffnell, in Cavendiſh-Square; with a great number of others of the nobility and gentry; but theſe would be ſufficient to fill a large volume.

This great city is happily ſupplied with abundance of freſh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable ſervice to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where diſperſed, the keys of which are depoſited with the pariſh officers, the city is, in a great meaſure, ſecured from the ſpreading of fire; for theſe plugs are no ſooner opened than there is vaſt quantities of water to ſupply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage, it has given riſe to ſeveral companies, who inſure houſes and goods, from fire; an advantage that is not to be met with in any other nation on earth: the premium is ſmall *, and the recovery, in caſe of loſs, is eaſy and certain. Every one of theſe offices, keep a ſet of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their aſſiſtance in caſe of fire; and who are on all occaſions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent; but though all their labours ſhould prove unſucceſsful, the perſon who ſuffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that muſt ariſe from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has inſured.

If the uſe and advantage of public magnificence is conſidered as a national concern, it will be found to be of the utmoſt conſequence, in promoting the welfare of mankind, as that attention to it, which encouragement will produce, muſt neceſſarily ſtimulate the powers of invention and ingenuity, and of courſe create employment for great numbers of artiſts, who, excluſive of the reward of their abilities, cannot fail of ſtriking out many things which will do honour to themſelves, and to their country. This conſideration alone, is without doubt highly worthy of a commercial people; it is this which gives the preference to one country, in compariſon with another, and it is this which diſtinguiſhes the genius of a people, in the moſt ſtriking manner.

London,

1,035. Bitumens, ſulphurs, ambers, &c. 399. Talcs, micæ, &c. 388. Corals, ſponges, &c. 1,421. Teſtacea, or ſhells, &c. 5,843. Echini, echinitæ, &c. 65. Aſteriæi trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Cruſtaceæ, crabs, lobſters, &c. 363. Stellæ marinæ, ſtar-fiſhes, &c. 173. Fiſh, and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and neſts, of different ſpecies, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, ſerpents, &c. 521. Inſects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus ſiccus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miſcellaneous things, natural, 2,098. Mathematical inſtruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

* The terms of inſurance are as follows, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
every perſon inſuring, ſhall pay for every 100 l. inſured on goods, incloſed in brick or ſtone		2	0
If half hazardous, as to ſituation, or kind of goods		3	0
If hazardous		4	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous		5	0
If hazardous, and hazardous		6	0
For every 100 l. inſured on goods, incloſed in part brick, and part timber		2	6
If half hazardous, as to ſituation, or kind of goods		3	9
If hazardous		5	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous		6	3
If hazardous and hazardous		7	6
For every 100 l. inſured on goods, incloſed in timber		3	0
If half hazardous, as to ſituation, or kind of goods		4	6
If hazardous		6	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous		7	6
If hazardous, and hazardous		9	0

The premium is double upon any ſum between one and two thouſand, and treble between two and three thouſand pounds.

London, before the conflagration in 1666, (which like moſt other great cities had ariſen from ſmall beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune, many melancholy proofs are authenticated in hiſtory, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumſtances, ſuch as the want of water, rendered the city ſcarce ever free from peſtilential devaſtation. The fire which conſumed the greateſt part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of conſequences, which made ample amends for the loſſes ſuſtained by individuals; a new city aroſe on the ruins of the old, but, tho' more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet by no means anſwered to the characters of magnificence or elegance, in ſome particulars, as ſhall be hereafter mentioned, and it is ever to be lamented (ſuch was the infatuation of thoſe times) that the magnificent, elegant, and uſeful plan of the great Sir Chriſtopher Wren, was totally diſregarded and ſacrificed to the mean and ſelfiſh views of private property; views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themſelves, and to the nation in general: for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been aſſerted, muſt have been the reſult, the metropolis of this kingdom would inconteſtably have been the moſt magnificent and elegant city in the univerſe, and of conſequence muſt from the prodigious reſort of foreigners of diſtinction, and taſte, who would have viſited it, have become an inexhauſtible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindneſs of that age, has deprived us of ſo valuable an acquiſition, it is become abſolutely neceſſary, that ſome efforts ſhould be made to render the preſent plan in a greater degree anſwerable to the character of the richeſt and moſt powerful people in the world.

The plan of London in its preſent ſtate, will in many inſtances appear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a diſpoſition, as can poſſibly be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the borders of ſo noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are deſpicable and inconvenient beyond conception. Let any one who has a tolerable taſte, and ſome idea of public magnificence, give himſelf the trouble of conſidering the ſtate of the buildings, quays and wharfs, on both ſides the river Thames, from Chelſea to Blackwall, on the one hand, and from Batterſea to Greenwich on the other; and he will be immediately convinced that there is not one convenient, well-regulated ſpot (as the buildings thereon are at preſent diſpoſed) either for buſineſs or elegance, in that whole extent. After he has conſidered the ſtate of the banks of the river, he may continue his obſervation upon the interior parts of the town, and naturally turn his eyes upon thoſe uſeful places to the trading part of the world, Wapping, Rotherhithe, and Southwark, all contiguous to the Thames, and all entirely deſtitute of that uſeful regularity, convenience, and utility, ſo very deſirable in commercial cities. The obſerver may from hence direct his view to Tower-hill, the Cuſtom-houſe, Thames-ſtreet, Watling-ſtreet, and the paſſages to London-bridge; thence to the miſerable contrived avenues into Spital-fields, Whitechapel, and Moorfields. He may conſider the ſituation of St. Paul's, and other churches, that of the Monument, the Companies halls, and other public buildings, that are thruſt up in corners, and placed in ſuch a manner as muſt tempt every foreigner to believe that they were deſigned to be concealed. The obſerver may next take in all thoſe wretched parts which he will find on both ſides the Fleet-

market; neceſſity will oblige him to proceed into Smithfield, for the ſake of breathing a freſher air; and when he has conſidered a ſpot, capable of the greateſt advantages, but deſtitute of any, he may plunge into the deplorable avenues and horrid paſſages in that neighbourhood. He may thence proceed to Baldwin's Gardens, through the ruins of which if he eſcapes without hurt, he may reach Gray's-Inn lane; which, though one of the principal avenues to this metropolis, is deſpicable beyond conception. From thence he may travel into Holborn, where the firſt object that preſents itſelf to view, is Middle-row, a nuiſance univerſally deteſted, but ſuffered to remain a public diſgrace to the fineſt ſtreet in London. He may hobble on with ſome ſatisfaction, until he arrives at Broad St. Giles's, where, if he can bear to ſee a fine ſituation covered with ruinous buildings, and inhabited by the moſt deplorable objects that human nature can furniſh, he may viſit the environs. From hence he may proceed along Oxford-road, and ſtriking into the town on which hand he pleaſes, he will obſerve the fineſt ſituation covered with a profuſion of deformity, that has been obtruded on the public, for want of a general, well regulated, limited plan, which ſhould have been enforced by commiſſioners appointed by authority, men of ſound judgment, taſte, and activity; had that happily been the caſe, all the glaring abſurdities, which are perpetually ſtaring in the faces, and inſulting the underſtandings of perſons of ſcience and taſte, would never have had exiſtence. But private property, and pitiful, mean undertakings, ſuited to the capacities of the projectors, have taken place of that regularity and elegance, which a general plan would have produced; and nothing in theſe parts ſeems to have been conſidered for 20 years paſt, but the intereſt of a few taſteleſs builders, who have entered into a combination, with no other view than fleecing the public, and of extending and diſtorting the town, till they have rendered it completely ridiculous. From hence the obſerver, in his road to the city of Weſtminſter, may have a peep at St. James's, the reſidence of the moſt powerful and reſpectable monarch in the univerſe: a prince, who is himſelf a lover of the arts, and under whoſe happy auſpices artiſts of real merit and ingenuity can never doubt of obtaining patronage and encouragement. The obſerver will not be better ſatisfied when he has reached Weſtminſter, when he conſiders what might have been done, and how little has been done, when ſo fine an opportunity preſented itſelf. From Weſtminſter-bridge he may conduct himſelf into St. George's Fields; one of the few ſpots about London which has not yet fallen a ſacrifice to the depraved taſte of modern builders; here he may indulge himſelf with the contemplation of what advantageous things may yet be done for this hitherto neglected metropolis.

From what has been ſaid of the cities of London and Weſtminſter, there cannot remain the leaſt doubt but that their ſtate, with regard to magnificence, elegance, or conveniency, is in ſuch places very deſpicable; but we have the pleaſure to find, that the neceſſity of rendering them otherwiſe is now become a matter of ſerious concern to perſons in power; and that ſome general plan is likely to be formed and obſerved for their improvement. In the cities of Paris, Berlin, Edinburgh, Rotterdam, and other places, the government takes cognizance of all public buildings, both uſeful and ornamental.

We might in this place take notice of the very elegant, uſeful, and neceſſary improvement, by the preſent method of paving and enlightning the ſtreets, upon the plan of the High-ſtreet of Edinburgh; an improve-

ment

ment which is felt in the moſt ſenſible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for ſeveral miles round upon the ſame plan; and, excluſive of lamps regularly placed on each ſide, at ſhort diſtances, are rendered more ſafe by watchmen placed within a call of each other, who are protected from the weather by proper boxes. Nothing can appear more brilliant than thoſe lights when viewed at a diſtance, eſpecially where the roads run acroſs; and even the principal ſtreets, ſuch as Pall-Mall, New Bond-ſtreet, Oxford Road, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence; upon the whole, there never was, in any age or country, a public ſcheme adopted which reflects more glory upon government, or does greater honour to the perſon who originally propoſed and ſupported it.

The embanking the river, and many other improvements now in agitation, ſupported by gentlemen of taſte and public ſpirit, give reaſon to hope, that this hitherto neglected metropolis will become, in point of beauty, conveniency, and elegance, what it is in wealth and commerce, the glory of the iſland, the admiration of every ſtranger, and the firſt city on earth.

Windſor caſtle is the only fabric that deſerves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding ſituation; which, with the form of its conſtruction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton Court was the favourite reſidence of King William. It is built in the Dutch taſte, and has ſome good apartments, and like Windſor lies near the Thames. Both theſe places have ſome good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and diſſipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which, for deſign and expreſſion, are reckoned the maſter-pieces of painting, have by his preſent majeſty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton Court, to the queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kenſington, which was purchaſed from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens, which are laid out in a grand taſte. Other houſes, though belonging to the king, are far from deſerving the name of royal.

Foreigners have been puzzled to account how it happens that the monarchs of the richeſt nation in Europe ſhould be ſo indifferently lodged, eſpecially as Charles I. whoſe finances were but low, compared to ſome of his ſucceſſors, had he lived undiſturbed, would more than probably have completed the auguſt plan which Inigo Jones drew for a royal palace, and which would have been every way ſuitable to an Engliſh monarch's dignity. The truth is, his ſon Charles II. though he had a fine taſte for architecture, diſſipated his revenues upon his pleaſures. The reign of his brother was too ſhort for ſuch an undertaking. Perpetual wars during the reigns of king William and queen Anne, left the parliament no money to ſpare for a palace. The two ſucceeding monarchs were indifferent as to ſuch a piece of grandeur in England; and though ſeveral ſchemes were drawn up for that purpoſe, yet they came to nothing, eſpecially as three millions of money were neceſſary for carrying it into execution. We have, however, every thing to expect during the preſent reign, when architecture and magnificence ſhine out in their full luſtre.

It would be needleſs, and, indeed, endleſs, to attempt even a catalogue of the houſes of the nobility and gentry in the neighbourhood of London, and all over the kingdom. They are by far more ſuperb and elegant than the ſubjects of any other nation can diſplay; witneſs thoſe of the duke of Devonſhire, the counteſs of Leiceſter, lord Scarſdale, the earl Temple, and earl Pembroke, where more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the poſſeſſion of any ſubject in the world; Sir Gregory Page, the earl of Tilney, and hundreds of others equally grand and ſumptuous. But thoſe capital houſes of the Engliſh nobility and gentry have an excellency diſtinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being ſuitable to each other, both in conſtruction and furniture, and all kept in the higheſt preſervation. It often happens, that the houſe, however elegant and coſtly, is not the principal object of the ſeat, which conſiſts in its hortulane and rural decorations. Viſtas, opening landſcapes, temples, all of them the reſult of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

It cannot be expected that I ſhould here enter into a detail of the chief towns of England; which, to ſay the truth, have little beſides their commerce, and the conveniency of their ſituation, to recommend them, though ſome of them have noble public buildings and bridges. Briſtol is thought to be the largeſt city in the Britiſh dominions, after London and Dublin, and to contain about 100,000 inhabitants. No nation in the world can ſhew ſuch dock-yards, and all conveniencies for the conſtruction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portſmouth (the moſt regular fortification in England) Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hoſpital at Greenwich for ſuperannuated ſeamen, is ſcarcely exceeded by any royal palace for its magnificence and expence. In ſhort, every town in England is noted for ſome particular production or manufacture, to which its building and appearance are generally fitted; and though England contains many excellent and commodious ſea-ports, yet all of them have an immediate connection with London, which is the common centre of national commerce.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This article is ſo copious, and has been ſo well diſcuſſed in former publications, many of which are maſter-pieces in their kind, that the reader, I hope, will not expect that I enter into minutiæ. It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raiſed the Engliſh to be at this day the firſt and moſt powerful people in the world. Hiſtorical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is ſufficient then to ſay, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth, that England began to feel her true weight in the ſcale of commerce. She planned ſome ſettlements in America, Virginia particularly, but left the expence attending them to be defrayed by her ſubjects; and indeed ſhe was too parſimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial ſchemes for the Engliſh trade The Eaſt-India company owes to him their ſucceſs and exiſtence, and the Britiſh America ſaw her moſt flouriſhing colonies riſe under him and his family. The ſpirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty, and their gradations have terminated in the preſent glorious ſtate of the nation. It is not within my deſign to follow commerce through all her fluctuations and ſtates. This would be an idle attempt, and it has already taken up large volumes. The nature of a

geographical

geographical work, requires only a repreſentation of the preſent ſtate of commerce in every country; and in this light I flatter myſelf that I ſhall be able to treat of it with more preciſion, than former writers upon the ſame ſubject.

The preſent ſyſtem of Engliſh politics may properly be ſaid to have taken riſe in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed, which naturally allied us to the reformed ſtates, and made all the Popiſh powers our enemies.

We began in the ſame reign to extend our trade, by which it became neceſſary for us alſo to watch the commercial progreſs of our neighbours; and, if not to incommode and obſtruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours.

We then likewiſe ſettled colonies in America, which was become the great ſcene of European ambition; for, ſeeing with what treaſures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined, that an American conqueſt or plantation would certainly fill the mother country with gold and ſilver.

The diſcoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the neceſſity of long voyages, produced, in a few years, a great multiplication of ſhipping. The ſea was conſidered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of ſovereignty aroſe, called naval dominion.

As the chief trade of Europe, ſo the chief maritime power was at firſt in the hands of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, who, by a compact, to which the conſent of other princes was not aſked, had divided the newly diſcovered countries between them; but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being ſeized by him, he was maſter of the ſhips of the two nations, with which he kept all the coaſts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada, he had raiſed at a vaſt expence for the conqueſt of England, was deſtroyed; which put a ſtop, and almoſt an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppreſſed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, reſolved no longer to endure the inſolence of their maſters; they therefore revolted; and after a ſtruggle, in which they were aſſiſted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independant and powerful common-wealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their ſyſtem of government, and ſome remiſſion of the war gave them leiſure to form ſchemes of future proſperity; they eaſily perceived that, as their territories were narrow, and their numbers ſmall, they could preſerve themſelves only by that power, which is the conſequence of wealth; and that by a people whoſe country produced only the neceſſaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired, but from foreign dominions, and by the tranſportation of the products of one country into another.

From this neceſſity, thus juſtly eſtimated, aroſe a plan of commerce, which was for many years proſecuted with an induſtry and ſucceſs, perhaps never ſeen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impaſſible bogs, erected themſelves into high and mighty ſtates, who ſet the greateſt monarchs at defiance, whoſe alliance was courted by the proudeſt, and whoſe power was dreaded by the fierceſt nations. By the eſtabliſhment of this ſtate, there aroſe to England a new ally, and a new rival.

At this time, which ſeems to be the period deſtined for the change of the face of Europe, France began firſt to riſe into power, and from defending her own provinces with difficulty and fluctuating ſucceſs, to threaten her neighbours with incroachments and devaſtations. Henry IV. having, after a long ſtruggle, obtained the crown, found it eaſy to govern nobles, exhauſted and wearied by a long civil war; and having compoſed the diſputes between the Proteſtants and Papiſts, ſo as to obtain, at leaſt, a truce for both parties, was at leiſure to accumulate treaſure, and raiſe forces which he propoſed to have employed in a deſign of ſettling for ever the balance of Europe. Of this great ſcheme he lived not to ſee the vanity, or feel the diſappointment; for he was murdered in the midſt of his mighty preparations.

The French, however, were in this reign taught to know their own power; and the great deſigns of a king, whoſe wiſdom they had ſo long experienced, even though they were not brought to actual experiment, diſpoſed them to conſider themſelves as maſters of the deſtiny of their neighbours; and from that time he that ſhall nicely examine their ſchemes and conduct, will find that they began to take an air of ſuperiority, to which they had never pretended before; and that they have been always employed more or leſs openly, upon ſchemes of dominion, though with frequent interruptions from domeſtic troubles.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the cuſtoms produced only 36,000 l. a year; at the reſtoration, they were let to farm for 400,000 l. and produced conſiderably above double that ſum before the revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and but very little trade, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increaſed to 150,000, and are now above ſix times that number. In thoſe days, we had not only our naval ſtores, but our ſhips from our neighbours. Germany furniſhed us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thouſand other things came from France. Portugal furniſhed us with ſugars; all the produce of America was poured upon us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoeſe retailed to us the commodities of the Eaſt-Indies at their own price. In ſhort, the legal intereſt of money was 12 per cent. and the common price of our land ten or twelve years purchaſe. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and thoſe but indifferent; the number of Engliſh merchants very ſmall, and our ſhipping much inferior to what now belong to our American colonies.

Such was the ſtate of our trade when this great princeſs came to the throne; but as we have already obſerved, the limits of our undertaking do no permit us to give a detail of the gradual progreſs of commerce ſince that reign, we flatter ourſelves that the Britiſh reader will not be diſpleaſed with the following view of our extenſive trade, at preſent carried on through the various nations of the globe.

Great-Britain is, of all other countries, the moſt proper for trade; as well from its ſituation, as an iſland, as from the freedom and excellency of its conſtitution, and from its natural products, and conſiderable manufactures. For exportation: our country produces many of the moſt ſubſtantial and neceſſary commodities, as butter, cheeſe, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pitcoal, alum, ſaffron, &c. Our corn ſometimes preſerves other countries from ſtarving. Our horſes are the moſt ſerviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations, for their hardineſs, beauty, and ſtrength. With beef, mutton,

pork, poultry, biſcuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreigners that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcaſes, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almoſt incredible, is the value likewiſe of other goods from hence exported; viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, ſhoes, houſhold-ſtuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, ſalmon, oyſters, ſaffron, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is ſcarce a manufacture in Europe, but what is brought to great perfection in England; and therefore it is perfectly unneceſſary to enumerate them all. The woollen manufacture is the moſt conſiderable, and exceeds in goodneſs and quantity that of any other nation. Hard-ware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; houſhold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, alſo are very great articles; our clocks and watches are in very great eſteem. There are but few manufactures we are defective in. In thoſe of lace and paper we do not ſeem to excel; but we import much more than we ſhould, if the duty on Britiſh paper were taken off. As to foreign traffic, the woollen manufacture is ſtill the great foundation and ſupport of it.

Our American colonies are the objects that naturally firſt preſent themſelves for our diſcuſſion, and they may be divided into two claſſes, our poſſeſſions on the continent, and thoſe in the iſlands, which go under the name of the Weſt-Indies.

I ſhall rank the Engliſh poſſeſſions in North-America, under the heads of the following colonies, viz. Hudſon's Bay, Labrador, Newfoundland, Canada, Nova-Scotia, New-England, (including Maſſachuſſets Bay, Rhode-Iſland, Connecticut, and New-Hampſhire, originally one colony, and tho' now under ſeparate juriſdictions, are ſtill conſidered as ſuch) New York, New Jerſey, Penſylvania, Virginia, and Maryland, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, Georgia, Eaſt and Weſt Florida. The chief commodities exported from Great-Britain to thoſe colonies, are wrought iron, ſteel, copper, pewter, lead, and braſs, cordage, hemp, ſail-cloth, ſhip-chandlery, painter's colours, millinery, hoſiery, haberdaſhery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, ſtuffs, flannels, Colcheſter bays, long ell ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, Manchester goods, Britiſh, foreign, and Iriſh linens, earthen wares, grind-ſtones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares, toys, ſaddlery, cabinet wares, ſeeds, cheeſe, ſtrong beer, ſmoaking pipes, ſnuffs, wines, ſpirits, and drugs, Eaſt-India goods, books, paper, leather, beſides many other articles, according to the different wants and exigencies of the different colonies, impoſſible to be enumerated here.

The commodities exported from America to Great-Britain, and other markets, are tobacco, rice, flour, biſcuit, wheat, beans, peas, oats, Indian corn, and other grain; honey, apples, cyder, and onions; ſalt-beef, pork, hams, bacon, veniſon, tongues, butter and cheeſe, prodigious quantities of cod, mackarel, and other fiſh, and fiſh-oil; furs and ſkins of wild beaſts, ſuch as bear, beaver, otter, fox, deer, and racoon, horſes, and live ſtock; timber planks, maſts, boards, ſtaves, ſhingles, pitch, tar, and turpentine; ſhips built for ſale; flax, flax-ſeed, and cotton; indigo, pot-aſh, bees-wax, tallow, copper ore, and iron in bars and in pigs; beſides many other commodities peculiar to the climes and ſoil of different provinces. As to thoſe, which have been acquired by the laſt general peace, they are certainly very improveable, nor can we form any judgment of them, in their preſent infantine unſettled ſtate. It does not enter within my deſign, nor indeed does it fall within my ſubject, to recapitulate the differences that unhappily ſubſiſt at preſent between

between thoſe colonies, and their mother country. It is ſufficient if I exhibit a ſtate of the trade between them, as it exiſted when thoſe differences took place, marking at the ſame time the commercial ſtrength and ſhipping of the colonies.

Colonies.	Ships.	Seamen.	Exports from Great Britain.	Exports from the Colonies.
Hudſon's Bay	4	130	*L.* 16,000	*L.* 29,340
Labrador, American veſſels 120				49,050
Newfoundland (3000 boats)	380	20,560	273,400	345,000
Canada	34	408	105,000	105,500
Nova Scotia	6	72	26,500	38,000
New England	46	552	395,000	370,500
Rhode Iſland, Connecticut, and New Hampſhire	3	36	12,000	114,500
New York	30	330	531,000	526,000
Penſylvania	35	390	611,000	705,500
Virginia and Maryland	330	3,960	865,000	1,040,000
North Carolina	34	408	18,000	68,350
South Carolina	140	1,680	365,000	395,666
Georgia	24	240	49,000	74,200
Eaſt Florida	2	24	7,000	
Weſt ditto	10	120	97,000	63,000
	1,078	28,910	3,370,900	3,924,606

The principal iſlands belonging to the Engliſh, in the Weſt Indies, are Jamaica, Anguilla, Berbuda, St. Chriſtopher's, Nevis, Antigua, Montſerrat, Dominica, St. Vincent, Barbados, Tobago, and Granada, and the Grenadines, or Grenadillos; alſo the Bermudas, or Summer iſlands; the Bahama, or Lucayan iſlands, in the Atlantic Ocean. Of theſe, Dominica, St. Vincent, Tobago, and Granada, were ceded by France to Great-Britain, by the definitive treaty of 1763.

The Engliſh trade with their Weſt India iſlands, conſiſts chiefly in ſugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany, and manchineel planks, drugs and preſerves; for theſe the exports from England are oſnaburgs, a coarſe kind of linen, with which the Weſt Indians now clothe their ſlaves; linen of all ſorts, with broad-cloth, and kerſies, for the planters, their overſeers and families; ſilks and ſtuffs for their ladies and houſhold ſervants; red caps for their ſlaves of both ſexes; ſtockings and ſhoes of all ſorts; gloves and hats; millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and ſilk; ſtrong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheeſe; iron ware, as ſaws, files, axes, hatchets, chiſſels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augres, nails; lead, powder, and ſhot; braſs and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, ſnuffs, and in general whatever is raiſed or manufactured in Great-Britain; alſo negroes from Africa, and all ſorts of India goods. Formerly the Engliſh Weſt India iſlands, ſent home large quantities of money in ſpecie, which they got upon the balance of trade with the French, Spaniards, and Portugueſe. We cannot, however, ſpeak with any preciſion, as to the particulars of the trade between the Engliſh Weſt Indies, and the mother country, though undoubtedly it is highly for the benefit of the latter, becauſe of the ceſſions made of the new iſlands there by the late peace, which, when fully peopled,

peopled, muſt have a very ſenſible influence upon the former ſyſtem of commerce in thoſe parts, as I ſhall have occaſion to obſerve in its proper place.

The trade of England to the Eaſt-Indies conſtitutes one of the moſt ſtupendous, political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in hiſtory. The trade itſelf is excluſive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the hiſtory of the Eaſt India trade, within theſe twenty years paſt, and the company's concerns in that country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that beſides their ſettlements on the coaſt of India, which they enjoy under proper reſtrictions, by act of parliament, they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indoſtan, acquired ſuch territorial poſſeſſions, as renders them the moſt formidable commercial republic (for ſo it may be called in its preſent ſituation) that has been known in the world, ſince the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are choſen annually by the proprietors of the ſtock; but it has been conjectured, that they amount annually to above three millions and a half ſterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining thoſe acquiſitions, are certainly very great; but after theſe are defrayed, the company not only clears a vaſt ſum, but is able to pay to the government 400,000 l. yearly, for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expences of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for thoſe poſſeſſions that are territorial and not commercial. This republic therefore cannot be ſaid to be independent, and it is hard to ſay what form it may take when the term of the bargain with the government is expired.

This company exports to the Eaſt Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all ſorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quickſilver. Their imports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw-ſilk, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain, or China ware, ſalt-petre for home conſumption; and of wrought ſilks, muſlins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries. I ſhall now proceed to a conciſe view of the Engliſh trade to other countries, according to the lateſt, and moſt authentic accounts.

To Turkey England ſends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hard-ware, iron utenſils, clocks, watches, verdegris, ſpices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw-ſilks, carpets, ſkins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and ſome other articles. Formerly the balance of this trade was about 500,000 l. annually, in favour of England. The Engliſh trade was afterwards diminiſhed through the practices of the French: but the Turkey trade at preſent is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the Engliſh. It is to be preſumed, if the Ruſſians are ſuffered to drive the Turks out of Europe, that Great-Britain will ſecure to herſelf a port in one of the numerous fine iſlands of the Levant.

England exports to Italy, woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fiſh, and Eaſt India goods; and brings back raw and thrown ſilk, wines, oil, ſoap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury: the balance of this trade in favour of England, is annually about 200,000 l.

To

To Spain, England ſends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fiſh, corn, iron, and braſs manufactures; haberdaſhery wares, aſſortments of linen from Germany, and elſewhere, for her American colonies: and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wools, indico, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and ſilver coin.

Portugal, till of late, was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whoſe fleets and armies have more than once ſaved her from deſtruction. Of late her miniſtry have changed their ſyſtem, and have fallen in with the views of the houſe of Bourbon. They have eſtabliſhed courts, which are inconſiſtent with the treaties between Portugal and England, and defraud the Engliſh merchants of great parts of their capitals, which they find it impoſſible to recover. They have likewiſe erected two Brazil companies; the one for Marenham, and Gran Para, the other for Perambuco, greatly to the detriment of the Engliſh right. The court of London is, at this time, by its miniſters, making the ſtrongeſt efforts for redreſs, and it is to be hoped they will be attended with ſucceſs, as Portugal itſelf cannot exiſt even as a kingdom, but by the protection of the Engliſh. Before theſe miſunderſtandings happened, the Engliſh trade to Portugal was highly beneficial for both nations. England ſent to that country almoſt the ſame kind of merchandizes as to Spain, and they received in return vaſt quantities of wines, with oils, ſalt, dried and moiſt fruits, dying drugs, and gold coins.

To France, England ſends much tobacco, lead, tin, flannels, horns, and ſometimes corn; and always much money at the long run; and brings home, in a ſmuggling way, a much greater value in wines, brandies, linen, cambrics, lace, velvets, and many other prohibited ſopperies, and brocades; always very conſiderably to England's diſadvantage. But as there is no commercial treaty ſubſiſting between England and France, not even in time of peace, England's juſt loſs cannot be aſcertained.

England ſends to Flanders, ſerges, flannels, tin, lead, ſugars and tobacco; and receives in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loſes upon the balance 250,000 l. ſterling yearly. To Germany, England ſends cloths and ſtuffs, tin, pewter, ſugars, tobacco, and Eaſt India merchandize; and brings thence vaſt quantities of linen, thread, goat-ſkins, tinned plates, timbers for all uſes, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000 l. annually, to the prejudice of England, but that ſum is now greatly reduced, as moſt of the German princes now find it their intereſt to clothe their armies in Engliſh manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Ruſſia, which formerly was againſt England, but the balance is now vaſtly diminiſhed by the great improvements of her American colonies, in raiſing hemp, flax, making pot-aſhes, iron-works, and tallow, all which uſed to be furniſhed to her by the northern powers.

To Holland, England ſends an immenſe quantity of many ſorts of merchandize; ſuch as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, Eaſt India and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, tar, ſugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes returns in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is uſually ſuppoſed to be much in favour of England. I ſhall forbear to mention the trade between England and Ireland, till I come to treat of the latter kingdom.

The

The acquisitions which the English have made upon the coast of Guinea, particularly their settlement at Senegal, have opened new sources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in possession of Senegal, traded there for gold, slaves, hides, ostrich feathers, bees-wax, millet, ambergris, and, above all, for that useful commodity, gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch. At present England sends to the coast of Guinea, sundry sorts of coarse woollen, and linen, iron, pewter, brass and hard-ware manufactures, lead-shot, swords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glass manufactures. And, besides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it supplies her American colonies with negro slaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold dust, gum, dying and other drugs, red wood, Guinea grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Persia, China, and other parts of Asia, England sends much foreign silver coin and bullion, and sundry English manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron and brass; and brings home from those remote regions, muslins and cottons of many various kinds, callicoes, raw and wrought silk, chints; teas, porcelain, gold dust, coffee, saltpetre, and many other drugs. And so great a quantity of those various merchandize are re-exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compensates for all the silver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the East-India, South-Sea, Hudson's-Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who proposes to trade thither, must become a member of the company, be subject to their laws and regulations, and advance a small sum at admission, for the purposes of supporting consuls, forts, &c.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the exports have been computed at seven millions sterling, and its imports at five, of which above one million is re-exported; so that if this calculation is true, England gains, annually, three millions sterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the most experienced merchants, and ablest calculators, differ. After all that has been said, it must be acknowledged, that many exceptions lie to particular estimates. The vast improvements at home, in iron, silk, linen, and other manufactures, and the growing imports from America, must greatly diminish the English imports from abroad. On the other hand, some of the other European nations are making vigorous efforts for rivalling the English manufactures. With what success they may be attended, time alone can determine; but hitherto, the appearances on their side are not very promising.

Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one sixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and silver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa; but great part of this gold and silver we again export to Holland, and the East Indies; and it is supposed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

We shall conclude this account of our trade, with the following comparative view of shipping, which, till a better table can be formed, may have its uses.

If

If the ſhipping of Europe be divided into twenty parts, then,

Great Britain, &c. is computed to have	6
The United Provinces	6
Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia	2
The trading cities of Germany, and the Auſtrian Netherlands	1
France	2
Spain and Portugal	2
Italy, and the reſt of Europe	1

My bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular detail of the places where thoſe Engliſh manufactures, which are mentioned in the above account, are fabricated; a few general ſtrictures, however, may be proper.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhire manufactures cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of ſheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone lace, ſtockings, and caps. Briſtol, which is both a city and county, is ſaid by ſome to employ 2000 maritime veſſels of all ſizes, coaſters as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glaſs-bottle and drinking-glaſs one alone occupying fifteen large houſes: its braſs-wire manufactures are alſo very conſiderable. Vaſt manufactures of all kinds (glaſs, jewelry, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular) are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and ſilver manufactures of London, thro' the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any country in Europe. Colcheſter is famous for its manufactures of bays and ſerges; and Norwich for its excellent ſtuffs, camblets, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade, in excellent and ingenious hard-ware manufactures, particularly ſnuff and tobacco-boxes, buttons, ſhoe-buckles, etwees, and many other ſorts of ſteel and braſs wares: it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of Engliſh art and induſtry, is to be ſeen; for ſuch are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they can afford them for the fourth part of the price at which other nations can furniſh the ſame or an inferior kind: the cheapneſs of coals, and all neceſſaries, and the conveniency of ſituation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarſer and ſlighter woollen manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Halliſax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond, and, above all, Mancheſter; which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like ſtuffs, is become a large and populous place, though it is only a village, and its higheſt magiſtrate a conſtable. I might mention Coventry, Nottingham, Leiceſter, Derby, Kendal, and many other manufacturing towns and places of England, each of which is noted for ſome particular commodity, but the detail would become too bulky. I muſt not, however, diſmiſs this head, without obſerving the beautiful porcelaine and earthen ware that has of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, particularly thoſe of Wilton and Kidderminſter, though but a late manufacture, greatly exceed in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable; and conſequently, is a vaſt ſaving to the nation. Paper, which

which till very lately, was imported in vaſt quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom, and is a moſt neceſſary as well as beneficial manufacture. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of ſalt-petre, which was firſt attempted in England by Sir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the Eaſt-India company: the ſucceſs of ſuch an undertaking would be of immenſe benefit, as well as ſecurity to the nation.

After all that has been ſaid on this head, the ſeats of manufactures, and conſequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating; they will always follow thoſe places where living is cheap, and taxes are eaſy: for this reaſon, they have been obſerved of late to move towards the northern counties, where proviſions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; add to this, that probably, in a few years, the inland navigations which are opening in many parts of England, will make vaſt alterations as to its internal ſtate.

Many ſenſible but ſpeculative Engliſhmen, daily expreſs their apprehenſions, leſt the weight of taxes and dearneſs of living in England, ſhould enable other nations to ruin the Engliſh trade at foreign markets, by underworking them. This objection is of a long ſtanding, and would have great weight, did not experience prove that it is not founded in fact. An Engliſh workman, it is true, lives much better than a foreigner, but then he will do double, if not triple the work, in the ſame time; and other nations are taxed deeply as well as England.

A ſhort view of the STOCKS, *or public Funds in England, with an hiſtorical account of the Eaſt-India, the Bank, and South-Sea Companies.*

As there are few ſubjects of converſation more general than the value of ſtocks, and hardly any thing ſo little underſtood, nothing can be more uſeful than a ſhort account of them, which we ſhall here give in as clear and conciſe a manner as poſſible; preſenting our readers with the rationale of the ſtocks, and a ſhort hiſtory of the ſeveral companies, deſcribing the nature of their ſeparate funds, the uſes to which they are applied, and the various purpoſes they anſwer, both with reſpect to the government, the companies themſelevs, and the community in general.

In order to give a clear idea of the money tranſactions of the ſeveral companies, it is proper we ſhould ſay ſomething of money in general, and particularly of paper-money, and the difference between that and the current ſpecie. Money is the ſtandard of the value of all the neceſſaries and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the repreſentative of that ſtandard to ſuch a degree, as to ſupply its place, and to anſwer all the purpoſes of gold and ſilver coin. Nothing is neceſſary to make this repreſentative of money ſupply the place of ſpecie, but the credit of that office or company, who delivers it; which credit conſiſts in its always being ready to turn it into ſpecie whenever required. This is exactly the caſe of the Bank of England; the notes of this company are of the ſame value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the poſſeſſor pleaſes. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is puniſhed with death, as well as coining.

The method of depoſiting money in the Bank, and exchanging it for notes (though they bear no intereſt) is attended with many conveniencies; as they are not only ſafer than money in the hands of the owner himſelf; but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more eaſy conveyance: ſince a bank note for a very large ſum, may be ſent by the poſt,

poſt, and to prevent the deſigns of robbers, may, without damage, be cut in two, and ſent at two ſeveral times. Or bills, called Bank poſt-bills, may be had by application at the Bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent loſſes by robberies, they being made payable to the order of the perſon who takes them out, at a certain number of days after ſight; which gives an opportunity to ſtop bills at the Bank, if they ſhould be loſt, and prevents their being ſo eaſily negociated by ſtrangers as common Bank notes are: and whoever conſiders the hazard, the expence and trouble, there would be in ſending large ſums of gold and ſilver to and from diſtant places, muſt alſo conſider this as a very ſingular advantage. Beſides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are deſtroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of ſuch accident, and ſecurity being given, pay the money to the perſon who was in poſſeſſion of them.

Bank notes differ from all kinds of ſtock in theſe three particulars; 1. They are always of the ſame value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no intereſt; while ſtocks are a ſhare in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. India bonds indeed (by ſome perſons, though erroneouſly, denominated ſtock) are to be excepted, they being made payable at ſix months notice, either on the ſide of the company or of the poſſeſſor.

By the word STOCK was originally meant, a particular ſum of money contributed to the eſtabliſhing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the perſon became a partner in that trade, and received a ſhare in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money employed. But this term has been extended farther, though improperly, to ſignify any ſum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain intereſt till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the ſecurity both of the government and of the public companies is eſteemed preferable to that of any private perſon, as the ſtocks are negotiable and may be ſold at any time, and as the intereſt is always punctually paid when due, ſo they are thereby enabled to borrow money on a lower intereſt than what might be obtained from lending it to private perſons, where there is often ſome danger of loſing both principal and intereſt.

But as every capital ſtock or fund of a company is raiſed for a particular purpoſe, and limited by parliament to a certain ſum, it neceſſarily follows, that when that fund is compleated, no ſtock can be bought of the company; tho' ſhares already purchaſed, may be transferred from one perſon to another. This being the caſe, there is frequently a great diſproportion between the original value of the ſhares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than ſellers, a perſon who is indifferent about ſelling, will not part with his ſhare without a conſiderable profit to himſelf: and on the contrary, if many are diſpoſed to ſell, and few inclined to buy, the value of ſuch ſhares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of thoſe who want to turn their ſtock into ſpecie.

Theſe obſervations may ſerve to give our readers ſome idea of the nature of that unjuſtifiable and diſhoneſt practice called Stock-jobbing, the myſtery of which conſiſts in nothing more than this: the perſons concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or ſell, at a certain diſtant time, a certain quantity of ſome particular ſtock, againſt which time they endeavour, according as their con-

tract

tract is, either to raiſe or lower ſuch ſtock, by raiſing rumours and ſpreading fictitious ſtories, in order to induce people either to ſell out in a hurry, and conſequently cheap, if they are to deliver ſtock; or to become unwilling to ſell, and conſequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive ſtock.

The perſons who make theſe contracts are not in general poſſeſſed of any real ſtock, and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay ſuch a ſum of money as makes the difference between the price the ſtock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for perſons not worth 100l. to make contracts for the buying or ſelling 100,000 l. ſtock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer in this caſe is called the Bull, and the ſeller the Bear.

Beſides theſe, there are another ſet of men, who though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the ſame denomination. Theſe are the great monied men, who are dealers in ſtock, and contractors with the government whenever any new money is to be borrowed. Theſe indeed are not fictitious, but real buyers and ſellers of ſtock; but by raiſing falſe hopes, or creating groundleſs fears, by pretending to buy or ſell large quantities of ſtock on a ſudden, by uſing the forementioned ſet of men as their inſtruments, and other like practices, are enabled to raiſe or fall the ſtocks one or two per cent. at pleaſure.

However, the real value of one ſtock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government, by which that credit is ſecured, muſt naturally have a conſiderable effect on the ſtocks. Thus, with reſpect to the intereſt of the proprietors, a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company which produces 5 l. or 6l. per cent. per ann. muſt be more valuable than an annuity with government ſecurity, that produces no more than 3 l. or 4 l. per cent. per annum; and conſequently ſuch ſtock muſt ſell at a higher price than ſuch an annuity. Though it muſt be obſerved, that a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company producing 5 l. or 6 l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch ſo much money at market as a government annuity producing the ſame ſum, becauſe the ſecurity of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying ſo much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the ſtocks of the Eaſt-India, the Bank, and South-Sea companies, are diſtinguiſhed by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we ſhall give a ſhort hiſtory of each of them, together with an account of the different ſtocks each is poſſeſſed of, beginning with the Eaſt-India company, as the firſt eſtabliſhed.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe the Eaſt-India company takes the lead; and I have already given ſome account of it, as being the capital commercial object in England. The firſt idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has ſince admitted of vaſt alterations. Its ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, were originally only 50 l. ſterling; and its capital only 369,891 l. 5 s. but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the ſhares were doubled, and, conſequently, each became of 100 l. value,

and the capital 739,782 l. 10 s. to which capital, if 963,639 l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole ſtock will be found to be 1,703,402 l. Though the eſtabliſhment of this company was vindicated in the cleareſt manner by Sir Joſiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes it ſuſtained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indoſtan, damped the ardour of the public to ſupport it; ſo that at the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent ſituation. This was in a great meaſure owing to its having no parliamentary ſanction, whereby its ſtock often ſold for one half leſs than it was really worth; and it was reſolved that a new company ſhould be erected, under the authority of parliament.

The oppoſition given to all the public ſpirited meaſures of king William by faction, rendered this propoſal a matter of vaſt difficulty; but at laſt, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new ſubſcription prevailed; and the ſubſcribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vaſt intereſt both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in ſome reſpects defective, ſo violent a ſtruggle between the two companies aroſe, that in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000 l. to the public, without any additional intereſt; for which conſideration the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies. Its excluſive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther ſum was lent by the company in 1730, by which, though the company's privileges were extended for 33 years, yet the intereſt of their capital, which then amounted to 3,200,000 l. was reduced to 3 per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the company, the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different ſhares, a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade; and that dividend riſes or falls according to the circumſtances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the caſe, pretended. A proprietor of ſtock to the amount of 500 l. whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thouſand pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are 24 in number, including the chairman and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected for four years ſucceſſively. The chairman has a ſalary of 200 l. a year, and each of the directors 150 l. The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at leaſt once a week; but are commonly oftener, being ſummoned as occaſion requires. Out of the body of directors are choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of certain branches of the company's buſineſs; as the committee of correſpondence, a committee of buying, a committee of treaſury, a houſe committee, a committee of warehouſes, a committee of ſhipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of law-ſuits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a ſecretary, caſhier, clerks, and warehouſe-keepers.

The

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company, which are attended with a proportionable encreaſe of trade, joined to the diſſentions among its managers both at home and abroad, have of late engaged the attention of the legiſlature ſo much, that a reſtriction has been laid for their dividends for a certain time, not to exceed 12 and a half per cent. As to the vaſt fortunes acquired by their governors and officers abroad, the ſtate in which they live, and their other economical regulations, they are foreign to this head.

Other officers of the company are governors and factors abroad, ſome of whom have guards of ſoldiers, and live in all the ſtate of ſovereign princes.

Bank of England.] The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England; in conſideration of the loan of 1,200,000 l. granted to the government; for which the ſubſcribers received almoſt 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common ſeal, unleſs by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or ſuffer any perſon in truſt for them, to trade in any goods, or merchandize; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or ſelling bullion, and foreign gold and ſilver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament paſſed in the 8th and 9th year of Will. III. they were impowered to enlarge their capital ſtock to 2,201,171 l. 10 s. It was then alſo enacted, that bank ſtock ſhould be a perſonal, and not a real eſtate; that no contract either in word or writing, for buying or ſelling Bank ſtock, ſhould be good in law, unleſs regiſtered in the books of the Bank within ſeven days; and the ſtock transferred in fourteen days, and that it ſhould be felony, without benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common ſeal of the bank, or any ſealed Bank bill, or any Bank note, or to alter or eraſe ſuch bills or notes.

By another act paſſed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were impowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343 l. and they then advanced 400,000 l. more to the government; and in 1714, they advanced another loan of 1,500,000 l.

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the intereſt of their capital ſtock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver up as many Exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000 l. and to accept an annuity of 100,000 l. and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their intereſts in the capital ſtock, ſuch ſums of money as in a general court ſhould be found neceſſary. If any member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ſo called for, at the time appointed by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the Bank, not only to ſtop the dividend of ſuch member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in queſtion; but alſo to ſtop the transfers of the ſhare of ſuch defaulter, and to charge him with an intereſt of 5 per cent. per annum, for the money ſo omitted to be paid: and if the principal and intereſt ſhould be three months unpaid, the Bank ſhould then have power to ſell ſo much of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter as would ſatisfy the ſame.

After this, the Bank reduced the intereſt of the 2,000,000 l. lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchaſed ſeveral other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national

debt due to the Bank, reduced to 1,600,000 l. But in 1742, the company engaged to ſupply the government with 1,600,000 l. at three per cent. which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities; ſo that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000 l. the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the ſum of 986,800 l. due to them in the Exchequer bills unſatisfied, on the duties for licences to ſell ſpirituous liquors by retail, ſhould be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,442 l. the intereſt of that ſum at 4 per cent. The company alſo agreed to advance the further ſum of 1,000,000 l. into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties ariſing by the malt and land-tax, at 4 per cent. for Exchequer bills to be iſſued for that purpoſe; in conſideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800 l. the intereſt of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to 3 and a half per cent. till the 25th of December 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the ſaid Exchequer bills, they eſtabliſhed what is now called Bank circulation. The nature of which not being well underſtood, we ſhall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation than we have been with regard to the other ſtocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep caſh ſufficient to anſwer not only the common, but alſo any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them, over and above the ſum ſuppoſed neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to ſay, in diſcounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and ſilver, and in government ſecurities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the abovementioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger ſum of money than what they deemed neceſſary to anſwer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current caſh ſo large a ſum as a million, with which they were obliged to furniſh the government, without either leſſening that ſum they employed in diſcounting, buying gold and ſilver, &c. (which would have been very diſadvantageous to them) or inventing ſome method that ſhould anſwer all the purpoſes of keeping the million in caſh. The method which they choſe, and which fully anſwers their end, was as follows.

They opened a ſubſcription, which they renew annually, for a million of money; wherein the ſubſcribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank ſhall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. ſo advanced; in conſideration of which, the Bank pays the ſubſcribers 4 per cent. intereſt for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole ſum they agree to furniſh; and in caſe a call ſhould be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the Bank further agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for ſuch ſum till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purpoſes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the ſubſcribers, if no call is made upon them, (which is in general the caſe) receive 6 and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the ſum of 23,500 l. per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account.

The

	£.
The Bank receives from the government for the advance of a million — — —	30,000
The Bank pays to the ſubſcribers who advance 100,000 l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000 l. more —	6,500
The clear gain to the Bank therefore is — —	23,500

This is the ſtate of the caſe, provided the company ſhould make no call on the ſubſcribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, becauſe it would not only leſſen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank ſtock may not improperly be called a trading ſtock, ſince with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and ſilver, in diſcounting bills of exchange, &c. Beſides which, they are allowed by the government very conſiderable ſums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages, render a ſhare in their ſtock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the Eaſt-India ſtock. The company make dividends of the profits half yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when thoſe who have occaſion for their money, may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their intereſt added to the principal.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the ſame manner as in the Eaſt-India company. Thirteen, or more, compoſe a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

The officers of this company are very numerous.

SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.] During the long war with France in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the ſailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets inſtead of money, were frequently obliged, by their neceſſities, to ſell theſe tickets to avaritious men at a diſcount of 40 l. and ſometimes 50 l. per cent. By this, and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321 l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies 6 l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South-ſea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain, trading to the South-ſeas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fiſhery, &c.

Though this company ſeemed formed for the ſake of commerce, it is certain the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the courſe of the war, about making any ſettlements on the coaſt of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with negroes; of which this company was deprived upon receiving 100,000 l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great-Britain and Spain, ſoon after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other ſums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the intereſt of the

whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the ſame intereſt. By the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge: and for enabling the company to raiſe ſuch ſums for purchaſing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. the company might, by ſuch means as they ſhould think proper, raiſe ſuch ſums of money as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary. The company were alſo empowered to raiſe money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common ſeal, on the credit of their capital ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe land or revenues of the crown, upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation, on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit treble the value of the money ſo lent.

The fatal South-Sea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt mentioned ſtatute. The company had at firſt ſet out with good ſucceſs, and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company, and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000 l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things were in this ſituation, when taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South-Sea bubble was projected. The pretended deſign of which was to raiſe a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and propoſals were printed and diſtributed, ſhewing the advantages of the deſign, and inviting perſons into it. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared that every 100 l. original ſtock would yield 50 l. per annum: which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100 l. was ſold for upwards of 800 l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September, it fell to 150 l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs occaſioned, as is ſcarcely to be conceived. But the conſequences of this infamous ſcheme are too well known. We ſhall paſs over all the other tranſactions of this company, in the reign of king George I. as not material to our preſent purpoſe.

By a ſtatute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital ſtock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,103 l. 8 s. 1 d. and the ſhares of the reſpective proprietors, ſhould be divided into four equal parts, three-fourths of which ſhould be converted into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities, after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and ſhould be called the new South-Sea annuities; and the other fourth part ſhould remain in the company as a trading capital ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds payable at the Exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the ſame ſums allowed for the charge of management, and with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges

privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South-Sea company. That the accomptant of the company ſhould, twice every year, at Chriſtmas and Midſummer, or within one month after, ſtate an account of the company's affairs, which ſhould be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends ſhould be made out of the clear profits, and ſhould not exceed what the company might reaſonably divide, without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company ſhould not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, until their debts were diſcharged; and that the South-Sea company, and their trading ſtock, ſhould, excluſively from the new joint ſtock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company ſhould cauſe to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities ſhould be entered, and ſigned by the party making ſuch transfer, or his attorney; and the perſon to whom ſuch transfer ſhould be made, or his attorney, ſhould underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities ſhould be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3 l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no perſon is qualified to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has in his own name and right, 5000 l. in the trading ſtock; the ſub-governor is to have 4000 l. the deputy 3000 l. and a director 2000 l. in the ſame ſtock. In every general court, every member, having in his own name and right, 500 l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000 l. two votes; if 3000 l. three votes, and if 5000 l. four votes.

The Eaſt-India company, the Bank of England, and the South-Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the Million-Bank, whoſe capital is only one million, conſtituted to purchaſe the reverſion of the long exchequer orders.

The intereſt of all the debts owing by the government, is now reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the years 1756, and 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders: but the South-Sea company ſtill continues to divide 4 per cent. on their preſent capital ſtock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the ſums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the intereſt of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different ſtocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*, ſo when a perſon who is not acquainted with tranſactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of ſtocks, where Bank ſtock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 a $134\frac{1}{4}$, South-Sea ditto $97\frac{1}{2}$, &c. he is to underſtand, that 100 l. of thoſe reſpective ſtocks ſell at ſuch a time for thoſe ſeveral ſums.

In comparing the prices of the different ſtocks one with another, it muſt be remembered, that the intereſt due on them from the time of the laſt payment, is taken into the current price, and the ſeller never receives any ſeparate conſideration for it, except in the caſe of India bonds, where the intereſt due is calculated to the day of the ſale, and paid by the purchaſer over and above the premium agreed for. But as the intereſt on the different ſtocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly underſtood, would lead a perſon, not well acquainted with them, into conſiderable

miſtakes in his computation of their value; ſome always having a quarter's intereſt due on them more than others, which makes an appearance of a conſiderable difference in the price, when, in reality, there is none at all. Thus, for inſtance, old South-Sea annuities ſell at preſent for £. 85 ½, or £. 85 10 s. while new South-Sea annuities fetch only £. 84 ¾, or £. 84 15 s. though each of them produce the ſame annual ſum of 3 per cent. but the old annuities have a quarter's intereſt more due on them than the new annuities, which amount to 15 s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two cauſes that will always make one ſpecies of annuities ſell ſomewhat lower than another, though of the ſame real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a ſmall capital, and there not being, for that reaſon, ſo many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others, where the quantity is larger; becauſe it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular ſpecies of annuity, the capital of which is the ſmalleſt.

A ſtock may likewiſe be affected by the court of Chancery; for if that court ſhould order the money which is under their direction, to be laid out in any particular ſtock, that ſtock, by having more purchaſers, will be raiſed to a higher price than any other of the like value.

By what has been ſaid, the reader will perceive how much the credit and the intereſt of the nation depends on the ſupport of the public funds.—While the annuities, and intereſt for money advanced is there regularly paid, and the principal inſured by both prince and people, (a ſecurity not to be had in other nations) foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be intereſted in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandize, and Great-Britain can never want caſh to carry her ſchemes into execution.

In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is eſtabliſhed on the intereſts of both prince and people, which is the ſtrongeſt ſecurity: for however lovely and engaging honeſty may be in other reſpects, intereſt in money matters will always obtain confidence; becauſe many people pay great regard to their intereſt, who have but little veneration for virtue.

The AMOUNT of the CAPITALS at the BANK, Threadneedle-ſtreet; SOUTH-SEA, ditto; and INDIA-HOUSE, Leadenhall-ſtreet.				Intereſt per annum.			When due.	When transferred.	Holidays.
BANK STOCK.	£ 10,780,000			£ 539,000			5 April & 10 Oct.	Tueſ. Thurſ. & Frid.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 30
—4 per cent. con. an.	20,240,000			809,600			Ditto	Mon. Tu. Th. & Fr.	Feb. 2, 24.
* 4 per cent. 1763	3,500,000			140,000			Ditto	Wedn. & Satur.	March 25.
* 4 per cent. navy	1,741,527	3	9	69,661	1	9	25 March & 29 Sept.	Ditto	April 23, 25.
* 3½ per cent. 1756	1,500,000			52,500			5 Jan. & 5 July	Tueſ. & Thurſ.	May 1, 29.
—3½ per cent. 1758	4,500,000			157,500			Ditto	Mon. Wed. & Frid.	June 4, 11, 24, 29.
—3 per cent. conſ.	35,127,821	5	1	1,053,834	12	9	Ditto	M.Tu.We.Th.&Fr.	July 25.
—3 per cent. red.	19,201,323	16	4	576,039	14	3	5 April & 10 Oct.	Tu. Wed. Th. & Fr.	Auguſt 12, 24.
3 per cent. 1726	1,000,000			30,000			5 Jan. & 5 July	Wed. & Satur.	Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29.
Long ann. for 99 years com. 5 Jan. 1761				248,150			Ditto	Ditto	Oct. 18, 25, 28. Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30. De. 21, 25, 26, 27, 28
SOUTH-SEA STOCK.	3,662,784	8	6	128,197	9	1	Ditto	Mon. Wed. & Frid.	MOVEABLE.
—3 per cent. old an.	12,404,270	2	7	372,128	2		5 April & 10 Oct.	Ditto	Shrove Tu. Aſh. Wed
—3 per cent. new	8,958,255	2	10	268,747	13	1	5 Jan. & 5 July	Tueſ. Thurſ. & Sat.	Good Friday.
—3 per cent. 1751	2,100,000			63,000			Ditto	Tueſ. & Thurſ.	Eaſt. Mo. Tu. & Wed.
IND. STOCK, 12 *per C.*	3,200,000			384,000			Ditto	Do. & Sat. till 12 o'cl.	Holy Thurſday.
—3 per cent. ann.	3,000,000			90,000			5 April & 10 Oct.	Mon. Wed. & Fri.	Whit. M. T. & Wed.
N. B. Intereſt on India bonds due 31ſt March and 30th of September.	£ 130,915,981	19	1	£ 4,982,458	13		N. B. Dividends paid at the Bank from 9 to 11, and 1 to 3 Transfers from 11 to 1 Div. at the So. Sea & Ind. H. from 9 to 12 Transfers from 12 to 1		Saturday after 1 excepted.

☞ Theſe marked with a * were paid off between the years 1765 and 1771.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in deſcribing ſuch a conſtitution as that of England, ſeems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved his miſtake, for by certain checks, that operate mutually, and which did not fall within his ideas, the Engliſh conſtitution has continued in its full vigour for above 500 years. It muſt, at the ſame time, be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and ſome interruptions, but its principles are the ſame, with thoſe deſcribed by the above-mentioned hiſtorian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern anceſtors of the Engliſh nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the firſt invaſion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany, and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the ſame, as thoſe mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to ſerve him, were diſtributed among them, and the whole was conſidered as the common property which they were to unite in defending againſt all invaders. Freſh adventurers coming over, under ſeparate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales, and thoſe leaders, at laſt, aſſumed the title of kings over the ſeveral diſtricts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more reſpectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not encreaſe their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were propoſed in a general aſſembly of the chief officers, and the people, till, by degrees, ſheriffs, and other civil officers, were appointed. The country was divided into wapentakes, and hundreds, names that ſtill ſubſiſt in England, and overſeers were choſen to direct them for the good of the whole. The ſheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters, within the county, and to him, after the introduction of Chriſtianity, was added the biſhop. In proceſs of time, as buſineſs multiplied, itinerant, and other judges, were appointed; but by the earlieſt records it appears, that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the diſpute lay, and here we have the original of Engliſh juries.

Before the introduction of Chriſtianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters, but we are certain that there was no action ſo criminal, as not to be compenſated for by money*. A mulct was impoſed in proportion to the guilt, even if it was the murder of the king, upon the malefactor, and by paying it, he purchaſed his pardon. Thoſe barbarous uſages ſeem to have ceaſed ſoon after the Saxons were converted to chriſtianity, and caſes of murder and felony were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, hereditary, though in fact it came to be rendered ſo through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preſerving the regularity of government. Even eſtates and honours were not ſtrictly hereditary, till they were made ſo by William the conqueror.

That prince new modelled the Engliſh conſtitution. He divided the conquered lands among his followers, as had been agreed before the time of the invaſion, in perpetual property. He partitioned out the lands into

* Called by the SAXONS GUILT, and thence the word *guilty* in criminal trials.

to knight's fees, an indetermined number of which formed a barony, and thoſe baronies were given to the great noblemen, who compoſed what is called the King's Court, or Court of Peers, from every baron being a peer, or equal to another. In this court all civil as well as military matters, and the proportions of knights and men which each baron was to raiſe for the king's ſervice, were ſettled. Even biſhoprics were converted into lay baronies, and were obliged, as others, to furniſh their quotas. In other reſpects, the Conqueror, and the firſt princes of the Norman line, did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon conſtitution, but the attempt was to no purpoſe. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints againſt the crown, and after much war and blood-ſhed, the famous charter of Engliſh liberties, ſo well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his ſon Henry III. who ſucceeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear, that till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been ſpilt, the commons of England were repreſented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; ſo entirely had the barons engroſſed to themſelves the diſpoſal of property.

The preciſe year, when the houſe of commons was formed, is not known, but we are certain, that it began in the reign of Henry III. though we ſhall not enter into any diſputes about their ſpecific powers. We ſhall therefore proceed to deſcribe the conſtitution, as it ſtands at preſent.

In all ſtates there is an abſolute ſupreme power, to which the right of legiſlation belongs; and which, by the ſingular conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, is here veſted in the king, lords, and commons.

OF THE KING.] The ſupreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland, is veſted by our conſtitution in a ſingle perſon, king, or queen; for it is indifferent to which ſex the crown deſcends: the perſon intitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately intruſted with all the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne of theſe kingdoms depends, is; "that the crown, by common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, is hereditary; and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf: but that the right of inheritance may from time to time be changed or limited by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal ſucceſſion, by its being transferred from the houſe of Tudor, to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him that on the death of queen Elizabeth, without iſſue, it became neceſſary to recur to the other iſſue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen: whoſe eldeſt daughter Margaret, having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the Firſt, was the lineal deſcendant from that alliance. So that in his perſon, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centered all the claims of the different competitors, from the Norman conqueſt downward; he being indiſputably the lineal heir of the conqueror. And, what is ſtill more remarkable, in his perſon alſo centered the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been ſuſpended from the conqueſt till his acceſſion. For Margaret, the ſiſter of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and granddaughter of king Edmund Ironſide, was the perſon in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings, ſuppoſing it not aboliſhed by the conqueſt, reſidad.

She

She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a deſcent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the reſtorer of the Saxon line. But it muſt be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had ſons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of this royal family king James I. was the direct lineal deſcendant; and therefore united in his perſon every poſſible claim, by hereditary right, to the Engliſh as well as Scottiſh throne, being the heir both of Egbert, and William the Conqueror.

At the revolution in 1688, the convention of eſtates, or repreſentative body of the nation, declared, that the miſconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant.

In conſequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Proteſtant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of ſucceſſion; with a temporary exception, or preference, to the perſon of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Proteſtant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the ſettlement of the crown to the Proteſtant line of king James I. viz. to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being proteſtants: and ſhe is now the common ſtock, from whom the heirs of the crown muſt deſcend *.

The

* A Chronology of Engliſh KINGS, from the time that this country became united under one monarch, in the perſon of Egbert, who ſubdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the iſland, the Saxons and Angles having, about four centuries before, invaded and ſubdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.		
800	Egbert	Saxon Princes.
838	Ethelwulf	
857	Ethelbald	
860	Ethelbert	
866	Ethelred	
871	Alfred the Great	
901	Edward the Elder	
925	Athelſtan	
941	Edmund	
946	Edred	
955	Edwy	
959	Edgar	
975	Edward the Martyr	
978	Ethelred II.	
1016	Edmund II.	
1017	Canute, king of Denmark	Daniſh.
1035	Harold	
1039	Hardicanute	
1041	Edward the Confeſſor	Saxon.
1066	Harold, Uſurper	
1066	William I.	(Commonly called the Conqueror, from his conquering England) duke of Normandy, a province facing the ſouth of England, now annexed to the French monarchy.
1087	William II.	Sons of the Conqueror.
1100	Henry I.	

Began

The true ground and principle, upon which the revolution proceeded, was an entirely new caſe in politics, which had never before happened in our hiſtory; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeazance of the right of ſucceſſion, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houſes of parliament: it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being. For in a full aſſembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the ſuppoſition of this vacancy, both houſes came to this reſolution; "that king James II. having endeavoured to ſubvert the conſtitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and by the advice of jeſuits, and other wicked perſons, having violated the fundamental laws; and having withdrawn himſelf out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government,

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Began to reign.		
1135	Stephen, grandſon to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela.	
1154	Henry II. (Plantagenet) grandſon of Henry I. by his daughter the empreſs Maud, and her ſecond huſband Geoffroy Plantagenet.	
1189	Richard I.	Sons of Henry II.
1199	John	
1216	Henry III. ſon of John.	
1272	Edward I. ſon of Henry III.	
1307	Edward II. ſon of Edward I.	
1327	Edward III. ſon of Edward II.	
1377	Richard II. grandſon of Edward III. by his eldeſt ſon, the black prince.	
1399	Henry IV. Son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, 4th ſon to Edward III.	Houſe of Lancaſter.
1413	Henry V. ſon of Henry IV.	
1422	Henry VI. ſon of Henry V.	
1461	Edward IV. deſcended from Edw. III. by Lionel his 3d ſon	Houſe of York.
1483	Edward V. ſon of Edward IV.	
1483	Richard III. brother of Edward IV.	
1485	Henry VII. (Tudor) ſon of the counteſs of Richmond, of the Houſe of Lancaſter.	Houſe of Tudor, in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII's marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.
1509	Henry VIII. ſon of Henry VII.	
1547	Edward VI. ſon of Henry VIII.	
1553	Mary	Daughters of Henry VIII.
1558	Elizabeth	
1603	James I. Great grandſon of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and firſt of the Stuart family in England.	
1625	Charles I. ſon of James I.	
	Uſurpation by Commonwealth and Cromwell.	
1649	Charles II.	Sons of Charles I.
1685	James II.	
1688	William III. nephew and ſon-in-law of James II.	
	and Mary	Daughters of James II.
1702	Anne	Charles I. for James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his infant ſon (the late pretender) who was excluded by act of parliament, which ſettled the ſucceſſion in the next Proteſtant heirs of James I. The ſurviving iſſue of James, at the time of his death, were a ſon and a daughter, viz. Charles, who ſucceeded him, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who married the elector palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princeſs Sophia, who married the duke of Brunſwick Lunenburg, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover, who aſcended the throne, by act of parliament, expreſsly made in favour of his mother.
1714	George I.	
1727	George II. ſon of George I.	Houſe of Hanover.
1760	George III. grandſon of George II.	

vernment, and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this ſudden and unexpected vacancy of the throne, the old line of ſucceſſion: which from the conqueſt had laſted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almoſt 900.

Though in ſome points (owing to the peculiar circumſtances of things and perſons) the revolution was not altogether ſo perfect as might have been wiſhed; yet from thence a new æra commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and underſtood, and the rights of the ſubject more explicitly guarded by legal proviſions, than in any other period of the Engliſh hiſtory. In particular, it is worthy obſervation, that the convention, in this their judgment, avoided with great wiſdom the wild extreams into which the viſionary theories of ſome zealous republicans would have led them. They held that this miſconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to ſubvert the conſtitution, and not to an actual ſubverſion, or total diſſolution of the government. They therefore very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a conſequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to ſubſiſt, though the executive magiſtrate was gone: and the kingly office to remain, though king James was no longer king. And thus the conſtitution was kept intire; which, upon every ſound principle of government, muſt otherwiſe have fallen to pieces, had ſo principal and conſtituent a part as the royal authority been aboliſhed, or even ſuſpended.

Hence it is eaſy to collect, that the title to the crown is at preſent hereditary, though not quite ſo abſolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common ſtock or anceſtor, from whom the deſcent muſt be derived, is alſo different. Formerly the common ſtock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterwards, in James I.'s time, the two common ſtocks united, and ſo continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688: now it is the princeſs Sophia, in whom the inheritance was veſted by the new king and parliament. Formerly the deſcent was abſolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any reſtriction; but now, upon the new ſettlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to ſuch heirs only, of the body of the princeſs Sophia, as are Proteſtant members of the church of England, and are married to none but Proteſtants.

And in this due medium conſiſts the true conſtitutional notion of the right of ſucceſſion to the imperial crown of theſe kingdoms. The extremes, between which it ſteers, are each of them equally deſtructive of thoſe ends for which ſocieties were formed, and are kept on foot. Where the magiſtrate, upon every ſucceſſion, is elected by the people, and may by the expreſs proviſion of the laws be depoſed (if not puniſhed) by his ſubjects, this may ſound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever productive of tumult, contention, and anarchy. And, on the other hand, divine indefeaſible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited paſſive obedience, is ſurely of all conſtitutions the moſt thoroughly ſlaviſh and dreadful. But when ſuch an hereditary right, as our laws have created and veſted in the royal ſtock, is cloſely interwoven with thoſe liberties, which are equally the inheritance of the ſubject; this union will form a conſtitution, in theory the moſt beautiful of any, in practice the moſt approved, and, in all probability,

bility, will prove in duration the moſt permanent. This conſtitution, it is the duty of every Briton to underſtand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expreſſed in his oath at the coronation, which is adminiſtered by one of the archbiſhops, or biſhops of the realm, in the preſence of all the people; who, on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"*The archbiſhop, or biſhop, ſhall ſay*, Will you ſolemnly promiſe and ſwear, to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the ſtatutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and cuſtoms of the ſame?—*The king or queen ſhall ſay*, I ſolemnly promiſe ſo to do.

Archbiſhop or biſhop. Will you to your power cauſe law and juſtice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—*King or queen*. I will.

Archbiſhop or biſhop. Will you to the utmoſt of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profeſſion of the goſpel, and the proteſtant reformed religion eſtabliſhed by the law? And will you preſerve unto the biſhops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all ſuch rights and privileges as by the law do or ſhall appertain unto them, or any of them?—*King or queen*. All this I promiſe to do.

After this the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy goſpels, ſhall ſay, The things which I have here before promiſed, I will perform and keep: ſo help me God. *And then ſhall kiſs the book*."

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now preſcribed by our laws: and we may obſerve, that in the king's part in this original contract, are expreſſed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law: to execute judgement in mercy: and to maintain the eſtabliſhed religion. With reſpect to the latter of theſe three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, 5 Ann. c. 8. two preceding ſtatutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England: which enact; the former, that every king at his ſucceſſion ſhall take and ſubſcribe an oath, to preſerve the proteſtant religion, and Preſbyterian church government in Scotland; the latter, that at his coronation, he ſhall take and ſubſcribe a ſimilar oath, to preſerve the ſettlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great-Britain, notwithſtanding the limitations of the power of the crown, already mentioned, is one of the greateſt monarchs reigning over a free people. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treaſon ſo much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himſelf, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it has no bounds (except where it breaks in upon the liberty and property of his ſubjects, as in making new laws, or raiſing new taxes) for he can make war or peace; ſend and receive ambaſſadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, fit out fleets, employ them as he thinks proper; grant commiſſions to his officers both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles, &c. ſummon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve it at pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though it hath paſſed both houſes;

houſes; which conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force than if it had never been moved. He poſſeſſeth the right of chuſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſhold, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great-Britain.

OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, in ſome ſhape, are, as has been obſerved, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this iſland; and have ſubſiſted, in their preſent form, at leaſt 500 years.

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſitting muſt not be intermitted above three years. Its conſtituent parts are, the king ſitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three eſtates of the realm; the lords ſpiritual, the lords temporal, (who ſit together with the king, in one houſe) and the commons, who ſit by themſelves in another. The king and theſe three eſtates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has alone the power of diſſolving them.

It is highly neceſſary for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, though not the whole, of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own conſent: ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein indeed conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people; by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved: while the king is a check upon both, which preſerves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and 24 biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all antient peers; ſome by creation, as do all the new made ones: others, ſince the union with Scotland, by election, which is the caſe of the 16 peers, who repreſent the body of the Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed and compounded conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people; by forming a barrier to with-ſtand the encroachments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne: and if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the laſt century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

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The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men of any property in the kingdom, as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of which has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentatives. In a free ſtate, every man, who is ſuppoſed a free agent, ought to be, in ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt of the legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people. In ſo large a ſtate as ours, it is very wiſely contrived, that the people ſhould do that by their repreſentatives, which it is impracticable to perform in perſon: repreſentatives, choſen by a number of minute and ſeparate diſtricts, wherein all the voters are, or eaſily may be, diſtinguiſhed. The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt of the nation. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of Scots 45; in all 558. And every member, though choſen by one particular diſtrict, when elected and returned, ſerves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not barely to advantage his conſtituents, but the common wealth, and to adviſe his majeſty, as appears from the writ of ſummons.

Theſe are the conſtituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and the commons. Parts, of which each is ſo neceſſary, that the conſent of all three is required to make any new law that ſhould bind the ſubject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no ſtatute; and to it no regard is due, unleſs in matters relating to their own privileges.

The power and juriſdiction of parliament, ſays Sir Edward Coke, is ſo tranſcendent and abſolute, that it cannot be confined, either for cauſes or perſons, within any bounds. It hath ſovereign and uncontrolable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, reſtraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all poſſible denominations, eccleſiaſtical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal: this being the place where that abſolute deſpotic power, which muſt in all governments reſide ſomewhere, is entruſted by the conſtitution of theſe kingdoms. All miſchiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that tranſcend the ordinary courſe of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new model the ſucceſſion to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the eſtabliſhed religion of the land; as was done in a variety of inſtances, in the reigns of king Henry VIII. and his three children. It can change and create afreſh even the conſtitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themſelves; as was done by the act of union, and the ſeveral ſtatutes for triennial and ſeptennial elections. It can, in ſhort, do every thing that is not naturally impoſſible; and therefore ſome have not ſcrupled to call its power, by a figure rather too bold, the omnipotence of parliament. True it is, that what the parliament doth, no authority upon earth can undo. So that it is a matter moſt eſſential to the liberties of this kingdom, that ſuch members be delegated to this important truſt, as are moſt eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge, for it was a known apothegm of the great lord treaſurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament:" and, as Sir Matthew Hale obſerves, this being the higheſt and greateſt court, over which none other can have juriſdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a miſgovernment ſhould any way fall upon it, the ſubjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of remedy.

In order to prevent the miſchiefs that might ariſe, by placing this extenſive authority in hands that are either incapable, or elſe improper, to manage it, it is provided that no one ſhall ſit or vote in either houſe of parliament, unleſs he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member ſhall vote or ſit in either houſe, till he hath, in the preſence of the houſe, taken the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy, and abjuration; and ſubſcribed and repeated the declaration againſt tranſubſtantiation, the invocation of ſaints, and the ſacrifice of the maſs. To prevent dangers that may ariſe to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connexions, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain, even though he be naturalized, ſhall be capable of being a member of either houſe of parliament.

Some of the more notorious privileges of the members of either houſe are, privilege of ſpeech, of perſon, of their domeſtics, and of their lands and goods. As to the firſt, privilege of ſpeech, it is declared by the ſtatute of 1 W. & M. ſt. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of ſpeech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or queſtioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of ſpeech is particularly demanded of the king in perſon, by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So likewiſe are the other privileges, of perſon, ſervants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but alſo from legal arreſts, and ſeiſures by proceſs from the courts of law. To aſſault by violence a member of either houſe, or his menial ſervants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity. Neither can any member of either houſe be arreſted and taken into cuſtody, nor ſerved with any proceſs of the courts of law; nor can his menial ſervants be arreſted; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be diſtrained or ſeized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament *.

The houſe of lords have a right to be attended, and conſequently are, by the judges of the court of king's bench, and common-pleas, and ſuch of the barons of the exchequer, as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made ſerjeants at law; as likewiſe by the maſters of the court of chancery; for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The ſpeaker of the houſe of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great ſeal, which dignities are commonly veſted in the ſame perſon.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the houſe, as being his own repreſentative, when a vote paſſes contrary to his ſentiments, to enter his diſſent on the journals of the houſe, with the reaſons for ſuch diſſent; which is uſually ſtiled his proteſt. Upon particular occaſions, however, theſe proteſts have been ſo bold as to give offence to the majority of the houſe, and have therefore been expunged from the journals.

The houſe of commons may be properly ſtiled the grand inqueſt of Great Britain, impowered to enquire into all national grievances, in order to ſee them redreſſed.

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* This exemption from arreſts for lawful debts, was always conſidered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generouſly relinquiſhed their privilege by act of parliament 1770; and members of both houſes may now be ſued like other debtors.

The peculiar laws and cuſtoms of the houſe of commons relate principally to the raiſing of taxes, and the elections of members to ſerve in parliament.

With regard to taxes: it is the antient indiſputable privilege and right of the houſe of commons, that all grants of ſubſidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their houſe, and are firſt beſtowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purpoſes, until they have the aſſent of the other two branches of the legiſlature. The general reaſon given for this excluſive privilege of the houſe of commons, is, that the ſupplies are raiſed upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone ſhould have the right of taxing themſelves. And ſo reaſonably jealous are the commons of this privilege, that herein they will not ſuffer the other houſe to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the leaſt alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a money bill. Under this appellation are included all bills, by which money is directed to be raiſed upon the ſubject, for any purpoſe, or in any ſhape whatſoever; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land tax; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular diſtrict, as by turnpikes, pariſh rates, and the like.

The method of making laws is much the ſame in both houſes. In each houſe the act of the majority binds the whole: and this majority is declared by votes openly and publicly given: not as at Venice, and many other ſenatorial aſſemblies, privately, or by ballot. This latter method may be ſerviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconſtitutional combinations, but it is impoſſible to be practiſed with us, at leaſt in the houſe of commons, where every member's conduct is ſubject to the future cenſure of his conſtituents, and therefore ſhould be openly ſubmitted to their inſpection.

To bring a bill into the houſe of commons, if the relief ſought by it is of a private nature, it is firſt neceſſary to prefer a petition; which muſt be preſented by a member, and uſually ſets forth the grievance deſired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature diſputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the houſe; and then (or, otherwiſe, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the houſe, without any petition. (In the houſe of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the ſtate of the facts alledged, to ſee that all neceſſary parties conſent, and to ſettle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a firſt time, and, at a convenient diſtance, a ſecond time; and after each reading, the ſpeaker opens to the houſe the ſubſtance of the bill, and puts the queſtion, whether it ſhall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally oppoſed, as the bill itſelf may at either of the readings; and, if the oppoſition ſucceeds, the bill muſt be dropt for that ſeſſion; at it muſt alſo if oppoſed with ſucceſs in any of the ſubſequent ſtages.

After the ſecond reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee; which is either ſelected by the houſe in matters of ſmall importance, or elſe, if the bill is a matter of great, or national conſequence, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe. A committee of the whole houſe is compoſed of every member; and, to

form it, the ſpeaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman) and may ſit and debate as a private member. In theſe committees, the bill is debated clauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and ſometimes the bill entirely new modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the houſe, with ſuch amendments as the committee have made; and then the houſe reconſider the whole bill again, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon every clauſe and amendment. When the houſe have agreed or diſagreed to the amendments of the committee, and ſometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engroſſed, or written in a ſtrong groſs hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment ſewed together. When this is finiſhed, it is read a third time, and amendments are ſometimes then made to it; and, if a new clauſe be added, it is done by tacking a ſeparate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The ſpeaker then again opens the contents; and holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion, whether the bill ſhall paſs. If this is agreed to, the title to it is then ſettled. After this, one of the members is directed to carry it to the lords, and deſire their concurrence; who, attended by ſeveral more, carries it the bar of the houſe of peers, and there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his woolſack to receive it. It there paſſes through the forms, as in the other houſe, (except engroſſing which is already done) and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it paſſes *ſub ſilentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it is agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage by two maſters in chancery (or, ſometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the ſame: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows between members deputed from each houſe; who, for the moſt part, ſettle and adjuſt the difference: but, if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back to the lords by one of the members, with a meſſage to acquaint them therewith. The ſame forms are obſerved *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the houſe of lords. But, when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. And when both houſes have done with any bill, it always is depoſited in the houſe of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the houſe of commons. It may be neceſſary here to acquaint the reader, that both in the houſes, and in their committees, the ſlighteſt expreſſion, or moſt minute alteration, does not paſs, till the ſpeaker, or the chairman puts the queſtion; which in the houſe of commons, is anſwered by *aye* or *no*; and, in the houſe of peers, by *content* or *not content*.

The giving the royal aſſent to bills, is a matter of great form. When the king is to paſs bills in perſon, he appears on his throne in the houſe of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of ſtate and heralds. A ſeat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly ſate, is reſerved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood ſit on the left hand of the king; and the chancellor on a cloſe bench removed a little backwards. The viſcounts and temporal barons, or lords,

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face the throne, on benches or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of biſhops runs along the houſe to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, ſit upon wool-packs between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the houſe ſitting on wool, is ſymbolical of wool being formerly the ſtaple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on ſolemn occaſions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the ſpeaker, who wears a long black ſilk gown, and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal aſſent may be given two ways: 1. In perſon. When the king ſends for the houſe of commons to the houſe of peers, the ſpeaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and in delivering them, he addreſſes his majeſty in a ſolemn ſpeech, in which he ſeldom fails to extol the generoſity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majeſty how neceſſary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occaſion, that the commons of Great-Britain appear in their higheſt luſtre. The titles of all bills that have paſſed both houſes are read; and the king's anſwer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman-French; a badge, it muſt be owned, (now the only one remaining) of conqueſt; and which one could wiſh to ſee fall into total oblivion; unleſs is be reſerved as a ſolemn *memento* to remind us that our liberties are mortal, having once been deſtroyed by a foreign force. If the king conſents to a public bill, the clerk uſually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it ſo to be;" if to a private bill, *ſoit fait come il eſt deſire*, "be it as it is deſired." If the king refuſes his aſſent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s' aviſera*, "the king will adviſe upon it." When a money-bill is paſſed, it is carried up, and preſented to the king by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, and the royal aſſent is thus expreſſed, *le roy remercie ſes loyal ſubjects, accepte lour benevolence, et auſſi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal ſubjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it ſo to be." In caſe of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal aſſent in the firſt ſtage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the ſubject; *les prelats, ſeigneurs, et commons, en ce preſent parliament aſſemblies, au nom de touts vous autres ſubjects, remercient tres bumblement votre majeſte, et prient a Dieu vous donner en ſante bone vie et longue*; "the prelates, lords and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the name of all your other ſubjects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the ſtatute 33 Hen. VIII. c. 21. the king may give his aſſent by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his abſence, to both houſes aſſembled together in the high houſe, by commiſſioners conſiſting of certain peers, named in the letters. And, when the bill has received the royal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute or act of parliament.

This ſtatute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was neceſſary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; becauſe every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being preſent thereat by his repreſentatives. However, copies thereof are uſually printed at the king's preſs, for the information of the whole land.

An act of parliament, thus made, is the exerciſe of the higheſt authority that this kingdom acknowledges upon earth. It hath power to bind

every ſubject in the land, and the dominions thereunto belonging; nay, even the king himſelf, if particularly named therein. And it cannot be altered, amended, diſpenſed with, ſuſpended, or repealed, but in the ſame forms, and by the ſame authority of parliament: for it is a maxim in law, that it requires the ſame ſtrength to diſſolve, as to create an obligation.

Such is the parliament of Great-Britain; the ſource and guardian of our liberties and properties, the ſtrong cement which binds the foundation and ſuperſtructure of our government, and the wiſely concerted balance maintaining an equal poiſe, that no one part of the three eſtates overpower or diſtreſs either of the other.

From the above general view of the Engliſh conſtitution, it appears that no ſecurity for its permanency, which the wit of man can deviſe, is wanting. If it ſhould be objected, that parliaments may become ſo corrupted, as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the anſwer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are ſuppoſed to watch over their political exiſtence, as a private perſon does his natural life. If a parliament was to act in that manner, it muſt become *felo de ſe*, an evil that no human proviſions can guard againſt. But there are ſtill ſuch reſources of liberty in England, that no ſuch fatal effect is now to be apprehended; and though the conſtitution has been even overturned, and ſometimes dangerouſly wounded, yet, its own innate powers have recovered and ſtill preſerve it. Monſ. Mezeray, the famous hiſtorian, ſaid to a countryman of ours, in the cloſe of the laſt century, "We had once in France the ſame happineſs and the ſame privileges which you have; *our laws were then made by repreſentatives of* OUR OWN *chuſing, therefore our money was not taken from us; but granted by us.* Our kings were then ſubject to the rules of law and reaſon—now, alas! we are miſerable, and all is loſt. Think nothing, Sir, too dear to maintain theſe precious advantages; if ever there ſhould be occaſion, venture your life and eſtate rather than baſely and fooliſhly ſubmit to that abject condition to which you ſee us reduced."—

The king of England, beſides his high court of parliament, has ſubordinate officers and miniſters to aſſiſt him, and who are reſponſible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and on taking the neceſſary oaths, they become immediately privy-counſellors, during the life of the king that chooſes them; but ſubject to removal at his direction.

The duty of a privy-counſellor appears from the oath of office, which conſiſts of ſeven articles: 1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of his cunning and diſcretion. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, meed, doubt or dread. 3. To keep the king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and ſtrengthen the execution of what ſhall be there reſolved. 6. To withſtand all perſons who would attempt the contrary. And, laſtly, in general, 7. To obſerve, keep, and do all that a good and true counſellor ought to do to his ſovereign lord.

As no government can be ſo complete as to be provided with laws that may anſwer every unforeſeen emergency, the privy-council, in ſuch caſes, can ſupply the deficiency. It has even been known, that upon great and urgent occaſions, ſuch as that of a famine, they can ſuperſede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not ſitting; but this is conſidered as illegal, and an act of parliament muſt paſs for the pardon and indemnification of thoſe concerned.

Among

Among the privy-counſellors, the two ſecretaries of ſtate are more officially ſo than the others, as they are entruſted with the king's ſignet, and are ſuppoſed to adviſe him on acts of government that may not be proper to be communicated even to a privy-counſellor; ſuch as giving orders for ſecret expeditions, correſpondence with ſpies or other agents, ſecuring traitors, and the like. The ſecretaryſhip of ſtate is now held by two noblemen or gentlemen; formerly the king nominated three, but the office was not then of that conſequence which it is now. Since the acceſſion of the family of Hanover, we have likewiſe known three principal ſecretaries of ſtate; but one of them was ſuppoſed to tranſact the affairs of Scotland, which are now committed to other miniſters. Upon the vaſt increaſe of the Britiſh colonies, a new board of trade was erected, and the firſt commiſſioner acts as ſecretary for the American affairs, but without that title. Till this erection took place, all American diſpatches came firſt to the hands of a principal ſecretary of ſtate, who correſponded with the American governors, and ſent them directions in his majeſty's name. The office itſelf is at preſent divided into a ſouthern and northern department. The ſouthern contains France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiſs Cantons, Conſtantinople, and, in ſhort, all the ſtates in the ſouthern parts. The northern comprehends the different ſtates of Germany, Pruſſia, Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanſeatic towns.

With regard to the capital acts of government, which were formerly entruſted with the ſecretaries of ſtate, a committee of the privy-council, commonly called a cabinet-council, are chiefly entruſted. This cabinet generally conſiſts of a ſelect number of miniſters and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities; but though its operations are powerful and extenſive, a cabinet-council is not eſſential to the conſtitution of England.

This obſervation naturally leads me to mention the perſon who is ſo well known by the name of the firſt miniſter; a term unknown to the Engliſh conſtitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps neceſſary. The conſtitution points out the lord high chancellor as miniſter, but the affairs of his own courts give him ſufficient employment. When the office of firſt lord of the treaſury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which I am to explain hereafter) in the ſame perſon, he is conſidered as firſt miniſter. The truth is, his majeſty may make any of his ſervants his firſt miniſter. But though it is no office, yet there is a reſponſibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a poſt of difficulty and danger. I ſhall now take a ſhort review of the nine great officers of the crown, who by their poſts take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The firſt is the lord high ſteward of England. This is an office ſo great, that it is now exerciſed only occaſionally, that is, at a coronation, or to ſit judge on a peer or peereſs, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held, for that day only, by ſome high nobleman. In caſes of trials, it is exerciſed generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; whoſe commiſſion, as high ſteward, ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor preſides in the court of chancery, to moderate the ſeverities of the law, in all caſes where the property of the ſubject is concerned; and he proceeds according to the dictates of equity and reaſon.

The poſt of lord high treaſurer has of late been veſted in a commiſſion, conſiſting of five perſons, who are called lords of the treaſury; but the firſt commiſſioner is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the power of lord high treaſurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the Exchequer; as alſo the letting of the leaſes of all crown lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the cuſtoms in the ſeveral ports of the kingdom. From this ſhort view of his office, its importance may be eaſily underſtood; as he has, in fact, the public finances in his hands, beſides the diſpoſal of ſo great a number of lucrative places, both in England and America, that the bare catalogue would exceed the bounds we allot to a long article.

The lord preſident of the council, was an officer formerly of great power: his duty is to propoſe all the buſineſs tranſacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majeſty is not preſent, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vaſt number of American and Weſt-Indian cauſes, captures, and the like affairs, that come before the board; all which may be abridged to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubject by an able preſident.

The office of lord privy ſeal, conſiſts in his putting the king's ſeal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are ſigned by the king, in order to their paſſing the great ſeal. The lord privy ſeal has likewiſe under his cognizance ſeveral other affairs, which do not require the great ſeal. He is to take care that the crown is not impoſed upon in any tranſaction paſſing through his hands; and he is reſponſible if he ſhould apply the privy ſeal to any thing againſt the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary in the duke of Ancaſter's family. He attends the king's perſon, on his coronation, to dreſs him: he has likewiſe charge of the houſe of lords during the ſitting of parliament; of fitting up Weſtminſter-hall for coronations, or trials of peers.

The office of lord high conſtable has been diſuſed ſince the year 1521, but is occaſionally revived for a coronation. It was formerly a place of the higheſt truſt, as it commanded all the king's forts and garriſons, and took place of all officers in the field.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marſhal of England. Before England became ſo commercial a country, as it has been for a hundred years paſt, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the Engliſh hiſtory for its diſcharge. In war time, he was judge of army cauſes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cauſe did not admit of ſuch deciſion, it was left to a perſonal combat, which was attended with a vaſt variety of ceremonies, the arrangement of which, even to the ſmalleſt trifle, fell within the marſhal's province. To this day, he, or his deputy, regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is intirely within his juriſdiction. He directs all ſolemn proceſſions, coronations, proclamations, funerals, general-mournings, and the like. He is ſuppoſed to be judge of the Marſhalſea-court; and in thoſe reigns where proclamations had the force of law, he had a cenſorial power in all caſes of uſurping falſe names, deſignations, armorial bearings, and the like; but this power is now diſputed, and reduced to a conformity with the common law. As his grace is diſqualified by his religion from the exerciſe of many parts of his office, ſome nobleman, generally one of his own friends or family, is

deputed to act for him; and he wears, as his badge, a gold baton tipped with ebony.

The office of lord high admiral of England is * now, likewise, held by commission, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, especially since the growth of the British naval power. The English admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itself. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commission immediately issuing from that board; and the members must sign even the death warrants for execution: but it may be easily conceived, that as they are removeable at pleasure, they do nothing that can clash with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themselves to the directions they receive from his majesty. The board of Admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named; so that its jurisdiction is very extensive. They appoint vice-admirals under them; but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature: London is the place where it is held; and all its processes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or those of the commissioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at sea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witnesses and a jury, ever since the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

Courts of law.] The court of Chancery, which is a court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is designed to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions; and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor sits as sole judge, and in his absence the master of the Rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, answers, and decrees, the witnesses being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the persons of those concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and consequently, if a man refuses to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than send him to the prison of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be sent to prison, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he sees reason for it, grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewise belongs to this court, he, or by his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he sits for the dispatch of business; through his hands pass all writs for summoning the parliament or chusing of members; commissions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, so called either from the kings of England sometimes sitting there in person, or because all matters determinable by common law between the king and his subjects, are here tried; except such affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is, likewise, a kind of cheque upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Here preside four judges, the first of whom is stiled lord chief justice of the King's Bench, or, by way of eminence, lord chief justice of England, to express the great extent of his jurisdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cause depending

* The last Lord High Admiral was George, prince of Denmark, and husband of queen Anne.

pending either in ſpiritual or temporal courts; and the houſe of peers does often direct the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out his warrant for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called juſtices, or judges of the king's bench.

The court of Common Pleas takes cognizance of all pleas debateable between ſubject and ſubject; and in it, beſide all real actions, fines and recoveries are tranſacted, and prohibitions are likewiſe iſſued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The firſt judge of this court is ſtiled lord chief juſtice of the common pleas, or common bench; beſide whom there are likewiſe three other judges, or juſtices, of this court. None but ſerjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was inſtituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer, and three other barons, preſide as judges. They are ſtiled barons, becauſe formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Beſides theſe, there is a fifth, called curſitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in adminiſtring the oath to ſheriffs and their officers, and alſo to ſeveral of the officers of the cuſtom-houſe.—But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treaſurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preſide, aſſiſted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treaſury, revenue, cuſtoms, and fines, are here tried and determined.—Beſides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts of the revenue, cuſtoms, exciſe, parliamentary aids and ſubſidies, &c. except the accounts of the ſheriffs and their officers. The lord treaſurer's remembrancer, whoſe buſineſs it is to make out proceſſes againſt ſheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, an high-ſheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Weſtmoreland and Middleſex) by the king; whoſe office is both miniſterial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandates, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of juſtice; to impannel juries, to bring cauſes and malefactors to trial, to ſee the ſentences, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed. And at the aſſize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. It is alſo part of his office to collect all public fines, diſtreſſes, and amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king ſhall appoint, and to make ſuch payments out of them as his majeſty ſhall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county court, which is held by the ſheriff, or his under-ſheriffs, to hear and determine all civil cauſes in the county under forty ſhillings; this, however, is no court of record; but the court, formerly called the ſheriff's turn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court, enquiry was made into all criminal offences againſt the common law, where by the ſtatute law there was no reſtraint. This court, however, has been long ſince aboliſhed.

Under the ſheriff are various officers, as the under-ſheriff, clerks, ſtewarts of courts, bailiffs, (in London called ſerjeants) conſtables, gaolers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the ſheriff, is the juſtice of peace, ſeveral of whom are commiſſioned for each county: and to them is entruſted the power of putting

putting great part of the ſtatute law in execution, in relation to the high-ways, the poor, vagrants, treaſons, felonies, riots, the preſervation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to priſon all who break or diſturb the peace, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects. In order to puniſh the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inqueſt of the county, is ſummoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to enquire into the caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the juſtices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next aſſizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-ſeſſions for the county. The juſtice of peace ought to be a perſon of great good ſenſe, ſagacity, and integrity, and to have ſome knowledge of the law; for as much power is lodged in his hands, and as nothing is ſo intoxicating, without theſe qualifications he will be apt to make miſtakes, and to ſtep beyond his authority, for which he is liable to be called to an account at the court of king's bench.

Each county contains two coroners, who are to enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any perſon came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown.

The civil government of cities is a kind of ſmall independent policy of itſelf; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a juriſdiction within itſelf, to judge in all matters civil and criminal; with this reſtraint only, that all civil cauſes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Weſtminſter; and all offences that are capital, are committed to the judge of the aſſize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and conſtitutions. They are conſtituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeſſes, who together make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor preſides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chuſe their own ſheriffs, and all of them have a power of making bye-laws, for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the Engliſh government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the ſame manner: in ſome there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs. All which, during their mayoralty, or magiſtracy, are juſtices of the peace within their liberties, and conſequently eſquires.

The Cinque-ports are five havens, that lie on the eaſt part of England towards France, and were endowed with particular privileges by our antient kings, upon condition that they ſhould provide a certain number of ſhips at their own charge, to ſerve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted. See the table of diviſions and counties.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the ſoil, or manor (who were formerly called barons) have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet, and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive juſtice. The buſineſs of courts-leet is chiefly to preſent and puniſh nuiſances; and at courts-baron, the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their eſtates on a deſcent or purchaſe.

A conſtable is a very antient and reſpectable office of the peace, under the Engliſh conſtitution. Every hundred has a high conſtable, and every pariſh in that hundred a conſtable, and they are to attend the high conſtable upon occaſions. They are aſſiſted by another antient officer, called

called the tythingman, who formerly ſuperintended the tenth part of a hundred, or ten free burgs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burg conſiſting of ten families. The buſineſs of a conſtable is to keep the peace in all caſes of quarrels and riots. He can impriſon offenders till they are brought before a juſtice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his diſtrict, every warrant that is directed to him from that magiſtrate, or a bench of juſtices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preſervation of the peace, and the more eaſy recovery of ſmall debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers, and it has of late been found neceſſary to revive ſome of them, and to appoint others of a ſimilar nature.

Beſides theſe, there are courts of conſcience ſettled in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of ſmall debts, not exceeding 40 ſhillings.

There neither is, nor never was, any conſtitution provided with ſo many fences, as that of England is, for the ſecurity of perſonal liberty. Every man impriſoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge in Weſtminſter-hall, called his Habeas Corpus.

If that judge, after conſidering the cauſe of commitment, ſhall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned, or acquitted, in a proper court of juſtice.

The rights of individuals are ſo attentively conſidered, that the ſubject may, without the leaſt danger, ſue his ſovereign, or thoſe who act in his name, and under his authority; he may do this in open court, where the king may be caſt, and be obliged to pay damages to his ſubject. He cannot take away the liberty of the leaſt individual, unleſs he has, by ſome illegal act, been accuſed or ſuſpected upon oath, to have forfeited his right to liberty, or except when the ſtate is in danger, and the repreſentatives of the people think the public ſafety makes it neceſſary that he ſhould have the power of confining perſons, on a ſuſpicion of guilt: ſuch as that of an act of rebellion within the kingdom, the legiſlature has thought proper to paſs a temporary ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act, but this never has been done but with great difficulty and caution, and when the national ſafety abſolutely required it. The king has a right to pardon, but neither he nor the judges, to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be firſt found guilty, by twelve men who muſt be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king, or his miniſters, to miſrepreſent the caſe to the jury, they have their ſalaries for life, and not during the pleaſure of their ſovereign. Neither can the king take away, nor endanger the life of any ſubject, without trial, and the perſons being firſt chargeable with a capital crime, as treaſons, murder, felony, or ſome other act injurious to ſociety: nor can any ſubject be deprived of his liberty, for the higheſt crime, till ſome proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magiſtrate; and he has then a right to inſiſt upon his being brought, the firſt opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be reſtored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he muſt not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alledged to be committed, and not without twelve of them agreeing to a bill of indictment againſt him. If they do this, he is to ſtand a ſecond trial before twelve other men, whoſe opinion is definitive. In ſome caſes, the man (who is always

always ſuppoſed innocent till there is ſufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is alſo furniſhed with the pannel, or liſt of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and diſcover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced againſt him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number *, and to as many more as he can give reaſon for their not being admitted as his judges; till at laſt twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accuſed, or living near the place where the ſuppoſed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath that they *ſhall well and truly try, and true deliverance make, between the king and the priſoners whom they ſhall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the priſoner prevents all poſſibility of bribery, or the influence of any ſuperior power: by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are ſuppoſed to be men who knew the priſoner's courſe of life, and the credit of the evidence. Theſe only are the judges, from whoſe ſentence the priſoner is to expect life or death, and upon their integrity and underſtanding, the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting, or condemning the priſoner. Every juryman is therefore inveſted with a ſolemn and awful truſt: if he without evidence ſubmits his opinion to that of any of the other jury, or yields in complaiſance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmoſt care; if he queſtions the veracity of the witneſſes, who may be of an infamous character; or after the moſt impartial hearing has the leaſt doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the perſon accuſed; he will wound his own conſcience, and bring upon himſelf the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Engliſhmen conſiſts in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them for declaring a man innocent, whom he wiſhes to be brought in guilty. Were not this the caſe juries would be uſeleſs; ſo far from being judges themſelves, they would only be the tools of another, whoſe province it is not to guide, but to give a ſanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the ſubject, and the judge on the bench be the miniſter of the prince's vengeance.

Theſe are the glorious privileges which we enjoy above any other nation upon earth. Juries have always been conſidered as giving the moſt effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing againſt law, they are a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fulleſt latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman againſt a ſubject, ſays he, let all ways be tried to juſtify him; and if that is not poſſible to be done, let him be chaſtiſed with greater noiſe than damage. If it be a ſubject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity, that the ſubject may not get too great a cuſtom of

* The party may challenge thirty-five in caſe of treaſon.

laying

laying their hands on the patrician order." In ſhort, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleaſed, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy conſtitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meaneſt, as well as the greateſt. When a priſoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are ſuppoſed to be counſel for the priſoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cauſe, other counſel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may ſet it aſide, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanting to clear up the cauſe of innocence, and to prevent the ſufferer from ſinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppreſſion of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made uſe of in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuſe himſelf, are here unknown, and none puniſhed without conviction, but he who refuſes to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations, the following account thereof may be uſeful to foreigners and others, who have not ſeen thoſe proceedings.

The court being met, and the priſoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accuſed, and aſks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the priſoner anſwers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he anſwers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confeſſed the fact: for the law of England takes no notice of ſuch confeſſion; and unleſs the witneſſes, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury muſt acquit him, for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the priſoner refuſes to plead, that is, if he will not ſay in court, whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*, he is by the law of England to be preſſed to death.

When the witneſſes have given in their evidence, and the priſoner has, by himſelf or his counſel, croſs examined them, the judge recites to the jury the ſubſtance of the evidence given againſt the priſoner, and bids them diſcharge their conſcience; when if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of court; and the foreman, for himſelf and the reſt, declares the priſoner *guilty* or *not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt ariſes among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up, till they are unanimouſly agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury ſhould die during this their confinement, the priſoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court thereof by an officer who waits without, and the priſoner is again ſet to the bar, to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in ſome doubtful caſes, when the verdict is brought in ſpecial, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the priſoner is found guilty, he is then aſked what reaſon he can give why ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed upon him? There is now no benefit of clergy——it is changed to tranſportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction the ſentence of death, after a ſummary account of the trial, is pronounced on the priſoner, in theſe words: *The law*

law is, That thou ſhalt return to the place from whence thou camſt, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou ſhalt hang by the neck, till thy body be dead; and the Lord have mercy on thy ſoul: whereupon the ſheriff is charged with the execution.

All the priſoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and diſcharged, and in ſome caſes obtain a copy of their indictment from the court to proceed at law againſt their proſecutors.

OF PUNISHMENTS.] Though the laws of England are eſteemed more merciful, with reſpect to offenders, than thoſe which at preſent ſubſiſt in any other part of the known world; yet the puniſhment of ſuch who at their trial refuſe to plead guilty or not guilty, is here very cruel. In this caſe the priſoner is laid upon his back, and his arms and legs being ſtretched out with cords, and a conſiderable weight laid upon his breaſt, he is allowed only three morſels of barley bread, which is given him the next day without drink, after which he is allowed nothing but foul water till he expires. This, however, is a puniſhment which is ſcarcely inflicted once in an age; but ſome offenders have choſe it to preſerve their eſtates for their children. Thoſe guilty of this crime are not now ſuffered to undergo ſuch a length of torture, but have ſo great a weight placed upon them, that they ſoon expire. In caſe of high treaſon, though the criminal ſtands mute, judgment is given againſt him, as if he had been convicted, and his eſtate is confiſcated.

The law of England includes all capital crimes under high treaſon, petty treaſon and felony. The firſt conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for ſome minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is uſually fixed on ſome conſpicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet with reſpect to perſons of quality, the puniſhment is generally altered to beheading: a ſcaffold is erected for that purpoſe, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is ſtruck off with an axe *.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of high treaſon, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

Petty treaſon is when a child kills his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs. This crime is puniſhed by being drawn in a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till the criminal is dead. Women guilty both of this crime, and of high treaſon, are ſentenced to be burnt alive, but inſtead of ſuffering the full rigour of the law, they are ſtrangled at the ſtake before the fire takes hold of them.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging, only † murderers are to be executed ſoon

* This is not to be conſidered as a different puniſhment; but as a remiſſion of all the parts of the ſentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

† By a late act, murderers are to be executed within 24 hours after ſentence is pronounced;

ſoon after ſentence is paſſed; and then delivered to the ſurgeons in order to be publicly diſſected. Perſons guilty of robbery, when there are ſome alleviating circumſtances, are ſometimes tranſported for a term of years to his majeſty's plantations. And in all ſuch felonies where the benefit of the clergy is allowed, as it is in many, the criminal is burnt in the hand with a hot iron.

Other crimes puniſhed by the laws are,

Manſlaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a perſon without premeditated malice, but with a preſent intent to kill; as when two who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this caſe, the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the firſt time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley, is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent, for which the offender is alſo to be burnt in the hand; unleſs the offender was doing an unlawful act, which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſhment death.

Shop-lifting, and receiving goods knowing them to be ſtolen, are puniſhed with tranſportation to his majeſty's colonies, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, or keeping diſorderly houſes, are puniſhed with the pillory and impriſonment.

Petty-larceny, or ſmall theft, under the value of twelve-pence, is puniſhed by whipping.

Libelling, uſing falſe weights and meaſures, and foreſtalling the market, are commonly puniſhed with ſtanding on the pillory, or whipping.

For ſtriking, ſo as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is puniſhed with loſing his right hand.

For ſtriking in Weſtminſter-hall, while the courts of juſtice are ſitting, is impriſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, or by paying a fine.

OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The firſt private relation of perſons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of huſband and wife; or, as moſt of our elder law books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holineſs of the matrimonial ſtate is left entirely to the eccleſiaſtical law; the puniſhment therefore, or annulling, of inceſtuous, or other unſcriptural marriages, is the province of ſpiritual courts.

The firſt legal diſability is a prior marriage, or having another huſband or wife living; in which caſe, beſides the penalties conſequent upon it as a felony, the ſecond marriage is to all intents and purpoſes void: polygamy being condemned both by the law of the New Teſtament, and the policy of all prudent ſtates, eſpecially in theſe northern climates. The ſecond legal diſability is want of age. This is ſufficient to avoid all other contracts, on account of the imbecillity of judgment in the parties contracting. Therefore if a boy under fourteen, or a girl under twelve years of age marries, this marriage is imperfect; and, when either of them comes to the age of conſent aforeſaid, they may diſagree, and declare the marriage void, without any divorce or ſentence in the ſpiritual court. This is founded on the civil law. But the canon law pays a greater regard to the conſtitution, than the age of the parties: for if they are *habiles ad matrimonium*, it is a good marriage, whatever their age may be. And in

nounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, that they obtain a reſpite till Monday.

our law it is ſo far a marriage, that if at the age of conſent they agree to continue together, they need not be married again. If the huſband be of years of diſcretion, and the wife under twelve, when ſhe comes to years of diſcretion, he may diſagree as well as ſhe may; for in contract, the obligation muſt be mutual; both muſt be bound, or neither; and ſo it is, *vice verſa*, when the wife is of years of diſcretion, and the huſband under.

Another incapacity ariſes from want of conſent of guardians. By the common law, if the parties themſelves were of age of conſent, there wanted no other concurrence to make the marriage valid: and this was agreeable to the canon law. But by ſeveral ſtatutes, penalties of 100l. are laid on every clergyman, who marries a couple either without publication of banns (which may give notice to parents or guardians) or without a licence, to obtain which the conſent of parents or guardians muſt be ſworn to. And it has been lately thought proper to enact, that all marriages celebrated by licence (for banns ſuppoſe notice) where either of the parties is under 21 (not being a widow, or widower, who are ſuppoſed free) without the conſent of the father, or, if he be not living, of the mother or guardians, ſhall be abſolutely void. A proviſion is made, as in the civil law, when the mother or guardian is *non compos*, beyond the ſea, or unreaſonably froward, to diſpenſe with ſuch conſent at the diſcretion of the lord chancellor; but no proviſion is made, in caſe the father ſhould labour under any mental, or other incapacity. Much may be, and much has been ſaid, both for and againſt this innovation upon our ancient laws and conſtitution. On the one hand, it prevents the clandeſtine marriage of minors, which are often a terrible inconvenience to thoſe private families wherein they happen. On the other hand, reſtraints upon marriages, eſpecially among the lower claſs, are evidently detrimental to the public, by hindering the increaſe of people; and to religion and morality, by encouraging licentiouſneſs and debauchery, among the ſingle of both ſexes; and thereby deſtroying one end of ſociety and government.

A fourth incapacity is want of reaſon; without a competent ſhare of which, as no other, ſo neither can the matrimonial contract, be valid.

Laſtly, the parties muſt not only be willing, and able to contract, but actually muſt contract themſelves in due form of law, to make it a good civil marriage. Verbal contracts are now of no force, to compel a future marriage. Neither is any marriage at preſent valid, that is not celebrated in ſome pariſh church, or public chapel, unleſs by diſpenſation from the archbiſhop of Canterbury. It muſt alſo be preceded by publication of banns, or by licence from the ſpiritual judge. It is held to be alſo eſſential to marriage, that it be performed by a perſon in orders: though in the times of the grand rebellion, all marriages were performed by the juſtices of the peace; and theſe marriages were declared valid in the ſucceeding reign. But, as the law now ſtands, we may upon the whole collect, that no marriage by the temporal law is void, that is celebrated by a perſon in orders,—in a pariſh church, or public chapel (or elſewhere, by diſpenſation) —in purſuance of banns or a licence,—between ſingle perſons,—conſenting,—of ſound mind,—and of the age of 21 years;—or of the age of 14 in male, and 12 in female, with conſent of parents or guardians, or without it, in caſe of widowhood.

There are two kinds of divorce, the one total, the other partial. The total divorce muſt be for ſome of the canonical cauſes of impediment, and thoſe exiſting before the marriage; as conſanguinity, affinity, or corporal

imbecillity. The iſſue of ſuch marriage, as is thus entirely diſſolved, are baſtards.

The other kind of divorce is when the marriage is juſt and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of diſſolving it; but, for ſome ſupervenient cauſe, it becomes improper, or impoſſible, for the parties to live together: as in the caſe of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this caſe the law allows alimony to the wife (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years) which is that allowance, which is made to a woman, for her ſupport, out of the huſband's eſtate; being ſettled at the diſcretion of the eccleſiaſtical judge, on conſideration of all the circumſtances of the caſe, and the rank and quality of the parties.

Having thus ſhewn how marriages may be made, or diſſolved, I come now, laſtly, to ſpeak of the legal conſequences of ſuch making, or diſſolution.

By marriage, the huſband and wife are one perſon in law; that is, the very being, or legal exiſtence of the woman, is ſuſpended during the marriage, or at leaſt is incorporated and conſolidated into that of the huſband: under whoſe wing, protection, and *cover*, ſhe performs every thing, and is therefore called in our law French, a *feme-covert*, under the protection and influence of her huſband, her *baron*, or lord; and her condition, during her marriage, is called her *coverture*. Upon this principle, of an union of perſon in huſband and wife, depend almoſt all the legal rights, duties, and diſabilities, that either of them acquire by the marriage. I ſpeak not at preſent of the rights of property, but of ſuch as are merely *perſonal*. For this reaſon a man cannot grant any thing to his wife, or enter into covenant with her; for the grant would be to ſuppoſe her ſeparate exiſtence; and the covenant with her would be only a covenant with himſelf; and therefore it is generally true, that all compacts made between huſband and wife, when ſingle, are voided by the intermarriage. A woman indeed may be attorney for her huſband; for that implies no ſeparation from, but is rather a repreſentation of her lord. And a huſband may alſo bequeath any thing to his wife by will; for that cannot take effect till the coverture is determined by his death. The huſband is bound to provide his wife with neceſſaries by law, as much as himſelf; and if ſhe contracts debts for them, he is obliged to pay them; but, for any thing, beſides neceſſaries, he is not chargeable. Alſo if a wife elopes, and lives with another man, the huſband is not chargeable even for neceſſaries: at leaſt, if the perſon who furniſhes them, is ſufficiently apprized of her elopement. If the wife be indebted before marriage, the huſband is bound afterwards to pay the debt; for he has adopted her and her circumſtances together. If the wife be injured in her perſon or property, ſhe can bring no action for redreſs without her huſband's concurrence, and in his name as well as her own; neither can ſhe be ſued, without making the huſband a defendant; except when the huſband has abjured the realm, or is baniſhed; for then he is dead in law. In criminal proſecutions, it is true, the wife may be indicted, and puniſhed ſeparately; for the union is only a civil union. But, in trials of any ſort, they are not allowed to be evidences for, or againſt each other; partly becauſe it is impoſſible their teſtimony ſhould be indifferent; but principally becauſe of the union of perſon. But where the offence is directly againſt the perſon of the wife, this rule has been uſually diſpenſed with; and, therefore, in caſe a woman be forcibly taken away, and married,

married, she may be a witness against such her husband, in order to convict him of felony.

In the civil law, the husband and the wife are considered as two distinct persons; and may have separate estates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and, therefore, in our ecclesiastical courts, a woman may sue, and be sued, without her husband.

But, though our law in general considers man and wife as one person, yet there are some instances in which she is separately considered, as inferior to him, and acting by his compulsion. And therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which case she must be solely and secretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will devise land to her husband, unless under special circumstances; for at the time of making it, she is supposed to be under his coercion. And in some felonies, and other inferior crimes, committed by her, through constraint of her husband, the law excuses her: but this extends not to treason or murder.

The husband also (by the old, and likewise by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to answer for her misbehaviour, the law thought it reasonable to entrust him, with this power of restraining her, by domestic chastisement, in the same moderation that a man is allowed to correct his servants or children; for whom the master or parent is also liable in some cases to answer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have security of the peace against her husband; or, in return, a husband against his wife: yet the lower rank of people, who were always fond of the old common law, still claim and exert their antient privilege; and the courts of law will still permit a husband to restrain a wife of her liberty, in case of any gross misbehaviour.

These are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may observe, that even the disabilities, which the wife lies under, are for the most part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female sex with the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. The king's ecclesiastical revenue consists in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and pensions, formerly arising from allowances of meat, drink, and cloathing, due to the king, from an abbey or monastery, and which he generally bestowed upon favourite servants; but now, I believe, disused. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The first fruits and tenths of benefices. At present, such has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that those four branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue consists in, 1. The demesne lands of the crown. 2. The hereditary excise; being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feodal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual sum issuing from the duty on wine licenses; being the residue of the same consideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of justice, &c.

The extraordinary grants are usually called by the synonimous names of aids, subsidies, and supplies; and are granted, as has been before hinted, by the commons of Great Britain, in parliament assembled; who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the *quantum* of that supply, usually resolve themselves into what is called a

committee of ways and means, to conſider of the ways and means of raiſing the ſupply ſo voted. And in this committee every member (tho' it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propoſe ſuch ſcheme of taxation as he thinks will be leaſt detrimental to the public. The reſolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the houſe) are in general eſteemed to be (as it were) final and concluſive. For, though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed upon the ſubject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready caſh, on the credit of a bare vote of the houſe of commons, though no law be yet paſſed to eſtabliſh it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed upon a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual exciſe on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandize exported or imported. 2. The exciſe duty, or inland impoſition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty. 4. The * poſt office, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The ſtamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and penſions.

The clear neat produce of theſe ſeveral branches of the revenue, after all charges of collecting and management paid, amounts annually to about ſeven millions and three quarters ſterling; beſides two millions and a quarter raiſed annually, at an average, by the land and malt tax. How theſe immenſe ſums are appropriated, is next to be conſidered. And this is, firſt and principally, to the payment of the intereſt of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehenſive view of the nature of this national debt, it muſt be firſt premiſed, that after the revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics; the expences of the nation, not only in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germannic body, and other purpoſes, increaſed to an unuſual degree: inſomuch that it was not thought adviſeable to raiſe all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, leſt the unaccuſtomed weight of them ſhould create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes upon the ſubject than would ſuffice to pay the annual intereſts of the ſums ſo borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property, transferable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity. A ſyſtem which ſeems to have had its original in the ſtate of Florence, A. D. 1344; which government then owed about 60,000 l. ſterling: and, being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate ſum, called metaphorically a mount or bank: the ſhares whereof were transferable like our ſtocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the national debt: for a few long annuities created in the reign of Charles II. will hardly deſerve that name. And the example then ſet has been ſo cloſely followed, during the

* From the year 1715 to 1763, the annual amount of franked letters gradually increaſed from 23,000 l. to 170,700 l.

the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and ſince; that the capital of the national debt (funded and unfunded) amounted, in January 1765, to upward of 145,000,000 l. to pay the intereſt of which, and the charges for management, amounting annually to about four millions and three quarters, the extraordinary revenues juſt now enumerated (excepting only the land-tax and annual malt-tax) are in the firſt place mortgaged, and made perpetual by parliament; but ſtill redeemable by the ſame authority that impoſed them: which, if it at any time can pay off the capital, will aboliſh thoſe taxes which are raiſed to diſcharge the intereſt.

It is indiſputably certain, that the preſent magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greateſt inconveniencies. For, firſt, the enormous taxes that are raiſed upon the neceſſaries of life, for the payment of the intereſt of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures; by raiſing the price, as well of the artificer's ſubſiſtence, as of the raw material; and of courſe, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itſelf. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a conſiderable quantity of ſpecie for the intereſt; or elſe it is made an argument to grant them unreaſonable privileges, in order to induce them to reſide here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to ſubjects only, it is then charging the active and induſtrious ſubject, who pays his ſhare of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Laſtly and principally, it weakens the internal ſtrength of a ſtate, by anticipating thoſe reſources which ſhould be reſerved to defend it in caſe of neceſſity. The intereſt we now pay for our debts would be nearly ſufficient to maintain any war, that any national motives could require. And if our anceſtors in king William's time had annually paid, ſo long as their exigencies laſted, even a leſs ſum than we now annually raiſe upon their accounts, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to, and ſettled upon, their poſterity in time of peace; and might have been eaſed the inſtant the exigence was over.

The produce of the ſeveral taxes before-mentioned were originally ſeparate and diſtinct funds; being ſecurities for the ſums advanced on each ſeveral tax, and for them only. But at laſt it became neceſſary, in order to avoid confuſion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of theſe ſeparate funds, by uniting and blending them together; ſuperadding the faith of parliament for the general ſecurity of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the aggregate fund, and the general fund, ſo called from ſuch union and addition; and the South Sea fund, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the intereſt of ſuch part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants. Whereby the ſeparate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual ſecurities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay ſuch intereſt or annuities as were formerly charged upon each diſtinct fund; the faith of the legiſlature being moreover engaged to ſupply any caſual deficiencies.

The cuſtoms, exciſes, and other taxes, which are to ſupport theſe funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and conſumptions, muſt neceſſarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been conſiderably more than ſufficient to anſwer the charge upon them. The ſurpluſſes therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South-Sea funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities

charged upon them, are directed by ſtatute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually denominated the ſinking fund, becauſe originally deſtined to ſink and lower the national debt. To this have been ſince added many other intire duties, granted in ſubſequent years; and the annual intereſt of the ſums borrowed on their reſpective credits, is charged on, and payable out of the produce of the ſinking fund. However the neat ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very conſiderable ſum; particularly in the year ending at Chriſtmas 1764, to about two millions and a quarter. For, as the intereſt on the national debt has been at ſeveral times reduced, (by the conſent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their intereſt, or be paid their principal) the ſavings from the appropriated revenues muſt needs be extremely large. This ſinking fund is the laſt reſort of the nation; its only domeſtic reſource, on which muſt chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever diſcharging or moderating our incumbrances. And therefore the prudent application of the large ſums, now ariſing from this fund, is a point of the utmoſt importance, and well worthy the ſerious attention of parliament; which was thereby enabled, in the year 1765, to reduce above two millions ſterling of the public debt.

But, before any part of the aggregate fund (the ſurpluſſes whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the ſinking fund) can be applied to diminiſh the principal of the public debt, it ſtands mortgaged by parliament to raiſe an annual ſum for the maintenance of the king's houſhold and the civil liſt. For this purpoſe, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the exciſe and cuſtoms, the poſt-office, the duty on wine licenſes, the revenues of the remaining crown lands, the profits ariſing from courts of juſtice, (which articles include all the hereditary revenues of the crown) and alſo a clear annuity of 120,000 l. in money, were ſettled on the king for life, for the ſupport of his majeſty's houſhold, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And, as the amount of theſe ſeveral branches was uncertain, (though in the laſt reign they were computed to have ſometimes raiſed almoſt a million) if they did not arife annually to 800,000 l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his preſent majeſty having, ſoon after his acceſſion, ſpontaneouſly ſignified his conſent, that his own hereditary revenues might be ſo diſpoſed of, as might beſt conduce to the utility and ſatisfaction of the public; and having graciouſly accepted the limited ſum of 800,000 l. per annum, for the ſupport of his civil liſt, (and that alſo charged with three life annuities, to the princeſs of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and princeſs Amelia, to the amount of 77,000 l.) the ſaid hereditary, and other revenues, are now carried into, and made a part of, the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown of 800,000 l. per annum. Hereby the revenues themſelves being put under the ſame care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, will produce more, and be better collected than heretofore; and the public is a gainer of upward of 100,000 l. per annum by this diſintereſted bounty of his majeſty. The civil liſt, thus liquidated together with the four millions and three quarters, intereſt of the national debt, and the two millions and a quarter produced from the ſinking fund, make up the ſeven millions and three quarters per annum, neat money, which was before ſtated to be the annual produce of our perpetual taxes, beſide the immenſe, though uncertain ſums, ariſing from the annual taxes

on land and malt, but which, at an average, may be calculated at more than two millions and a quarter; and which, added to the preceding ſum, make the clear produce of the taxes, excluſive of the charge of collecting, which are raiſed yearly on the people of this country, amount to upward of ten million ſterling; to which may be further added, the ſum of 400,000 l. which the East India company have agreed to pay to the public for a certain time.

The expences defrayed by the civil liſt, are thoſe that in any ſhape relate to civil government; as the expences of the houſhold, all ſalaries to officers of ſtate, to the judges, and every one of the king's ſervants; the appointments to foreign ambaſſadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expences, or privy purſe, and other very numerous outgoings; as ſecret ſervice-money, penſions, and other bounties. Theſe ſometimes have ſo far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpoſe, that application has been made to parliament, to diſcharge the debts contracted on the civil liſt; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpoſe by the ſtatute 11 Geo. I. c. 17.

The civil liſt is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own diſtinct capacity; the reſt being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected, and diſtributed again, in the name, and by the officers of the crown; it now ſtanding in the ſame place, as the hereditary income did formerly; and, as that has gradually diminiſhed, the parliamentary appointments have encreaſed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH OF GREAT BRITAIN. The military ſtate includes the whole of the ſoldiery; or, ſuch perſons as are peculiarly appointed among the reſt of the people, for the ſafe-guard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In ſuch, no man ſhould take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen, and would wiſh to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. The laws, therefore, and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms know no ſuch ſtate, as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war: and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons.

It ſeems univerſally agreed by all hiſtorians, that king Alfred firſt ſettled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent diſcipline made all the ſubjects of his dominions ſoldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in caſe of domeſtic inſurrections, or the proſpect of foreign invaſions. Beſides thoſe, who by their military tenures were bound to perform 40 days ſervice in the field, the ſtatute of Winchester obliged every man, according to his eſtate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of ſuch arms as were then in uſe, in order to keep the peace: and conſtables were appointed in all hundreds, to ſee that ſuch arms were provided. Theſe weapons were changed by the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern ſervice; but both this and the former proviſion were repealed in the reign of James I. While theſe continued in force, it was uſual from time to time, for our princes to iſſue commiſſions of array, and ſend into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muſter and array (or ſet in military order)

the inhabitants of every diſtrict; and the form of the commiſſion of array was ſet in parliament in the 5 Henry IV. But at the ſame time it was provided, that no man ſhould be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his ſhire, but in caſes of urgent neceſſity; nor ſhould provide ſoldiers unleſs by conſent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. and his children, lord lieutenants began to be introduced, as ſtanding repreſentatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in uſe; for Camden ſpeaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth, as extraordinary magiſtrates, conſtituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the reſtoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recognize the ſole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination: and the order in which the militia now ſtands by law, is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of ſome new regulations, by the preſent militia-laws; the general ſcheme of which is to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord lieutenant, the deputy lieutenants, and other principal landholders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in caſe of invaſion, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe compellable to march out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times; and their diſcipline in general is liberal and eaſy; but, when drawn out into actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign or domeſtic violence; and which the ſtatutes declare, is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſafety and proſperity of the kingdom.

But, as the faſhion of keeping ſtanding armies has univerſally prevailed over all Europe of late years (though ſome of its potentates, being unable themſelves to maintain them, are obliged to have reſource to richer powers, and receive ſubſidiary penſions for that purpoſe) it has alſo for many years paſt been annually judged neceſſary by our legiſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great-Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipſo facto*, diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. The land forces * of theſe kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garriſons in Ireland, Gibraltar, Minorca, and America; but in time of war, there have been in Britiſh pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000. The regiſtered militia in England conſiſts of near 200,000. To keep this body of troops in order, an annual act of parliament paſſes, "to puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and eſtabliſhes a law-martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer and ſoldier ſhall excite, or join any mutiny, or, knowing of it,

ſhall not give notice to the commanding officer; or ſhall deſert, or liſt in any other regiment, or ſleep upon his poſt, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correſpondence with a rebel or enemy, or ſtrike or uſe violence to his ſuperior officer, or ſhall diſobey his lawful command; ſuch offender ſhall ſuffer ſuch puniſhment as a court-martial ſhall inflict, though it extend to death itſelf.

Officers and ſoldiers that have been in the king's ſervice, are by ſeveral ſtatutes, enacted, at the cloſe of ſeveral wars, at liberty to uſe any trade or occupation they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom (except the two univerſities) notwithſtanding any ſtatute, cuſtom, or charter to the contrary. And ſoldiers in actual military ſervice, may make verbal wills, and diſpoſe of their goods, wages, and other perſonal chattels, without thoſe forms, ſolemnities, and expences, which the law requires in other caſes.

The

* The land forces conſiſt of

2 Troops of horſe-guards raiſed in 1660.—2 Troops of horſe-grenadier-guards raiſed in 1693 and 1702.—1 Royal regiment of horſe-guards, ditto 1661.—4 Regiments of horſe-guards, ditto 1685 and 1688.—3 Regiments of dragoon-guards, ditto 1685.—14 Regiments of dragoons, including light-horſe, raiſed between 1683 and 1759.—3 Regiments of foot-guards, raiſed in 1660.—76 Regiments of foot, the firſt or royal Scots, raiſed in 1663, the others between 1661 and 1762.—8 Independent companies of invalids.

Daily Pay of each Rank in his Majeſty's Land Forces on the *Britiſh* Eſtabliſhment.			Royal Reg. of Horſe-guards.			Dragoons.			Foot Guards.			Foot.		
			F. Pay	Subſiſt.		F. Pay	Subſiſt.		F. Pay	Subſiſt.		F. Pay	Subſiſt.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.		£	s. d.		£	s. d.		£	s. d.	
Colonel and Captain	—	—	2	1										
Lieutenant Colonel and Captain	—	—	1	9	6	1	11							
Major and Captain	—	—	1	7	6	1	2	6						
Captain	—	—	1	1	6	1	1	6	1	5				
Captain Lieutenant or Lieutenant	—	—	1	1	6	1	1	6	1	4	6			
Cornet h. gds & dr. Enſ. ft. Enſign 2d Lt ft.	—	—	15	14		11	11	6	6	15	6			
Chaplain	—	—	1	6	8	1	6	8	1	6	8			
Adjutant	—	—	1	6	8	1	5		1	5				
Quarter-Maſter	—	—	1	5	0	1	4	6	1	4	6			
Surgeon	—	—	1	6	8	1	6	8	1	6	8			
Surgeon's mate	—	—	1	6	8	1	6	8	1	6	8			
Drum Major	—	—	1	6	8	1	6	8	1	6	8			
Deputy Marſhal	—	—	1	6	8	1	6	8	1	6	8			
Serjeant	—	—	1	5	0	1	4	6	1	4	6			
Corporal	—	—	1	3	4	1	2	6	1	2	6			
Drummer	—	—	1	3	4	1	2	6	1	2	6			
Trumpeter	—	—	1	3	4	1	2	6	1	2	6			
Private Man	—	—	1	2	6	1	2	6	1	2	6			
Allowance on the Eſtabliſhment to	Colonel	per troop or comp.	4	2		4	2		4	2				
	Do for hautbois					1	2		1	2				
	Captain					2	4		2	4				
	Agent					1	2		1	2				

The maritime ſtate is nearly related to the former; though much more agreeable to the principles of our free conſtitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greateſt defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural ſtrength; the floating bulwark of the iſland; an army, from which, however ſtrong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been aſſiduouſly cultivated, even from the earlieſt ages. To ſo much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe, as the ground and ſubſtruction of all the marine conſtitutions, was confeſſedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the iſle of Oleron, on the coaſt of France, then part of the poſſeſſions of the crown of England. And yet, ſo vaſtly inferior were our anceſtors in this point, to the preſent age, that even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, Sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boaſt, that the royal navy of England then conſiſted of 33 ſhips. The preſent condition of our marine is in great meaſure owing to the ſalutary proviſions of the ſtatutes, called the navigation acts; whereby the conſtant increaſe of Engliſh ſhipping and ſeamen, was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably neceſſary. The moſt beneficial ſtatute for the trade and commerce of theſe kingdoms, is that navigation-act, the rudiments of which were firſt framed in 1650, with a narrow partial view: being intended to mortify the ſugar iſlands, which were diſaffected to the parliament, and ſtill held out for Charles II. by ſtopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the ſame time to clip the wings of thoſe our opulent and aſpiring neighbours. This prohibited all ſhips of foreign nations from trading with the Engliſh plantations without licence from the council of ſtate. In 1651, the prohibition was extended alſo to the mother country; and no goods were ſuffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies in any other than Engliſh bottoms; or in the ſhips of that European nation, of which the merchandize imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the reſtoration, the former proviſions were continued, by ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the maſter, and three fourths of the mariners ſhall alſo be Engliſh ſubjects.

The complement of ſeamen, in time of peace, uſually amounts to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they have amounted to no leſs than 80,000 men.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the differences of their colours. Each ſquadron has its admiral; but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtiled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear-admiral. But the ſupreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty. Notwithſtanding our favourable ſituation for a maritime power, it was not until the vaſt armament ſent to ſubdue this nation by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully ſenſible of its true intereſt and natural ſtrength, which it has ſince ſo happily cultivated.

We may venture to affirm that the Britiſh navy, during the late war, was able to cope with all the other fleets in Europe. In the courſe of a few years

years it entirely vanquiſhed the whole naval power of France, diſabled Spain, and kept the Dutch and other powers in awe.

For the protection of the Britiſh empire, and the annoyance of our enemies, it was then divided into ſeveral powerful ſquadrons, ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, as at once to appear in every quarter of the globe, and while ſome fleets were humbling the pride of Spain in Aſia and America, others were employed in fruſtrating the deſigns of France, and eſcorting home the riches of the eaſtern and weſtern worlds.

Many laws have been made for the ſupply of the royal navy with ſeamen; for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them, during, and after their ſervice.

1. For their ſupply. The power of impreſſing men, for the ſea-ſervice, by the king's commiſſion, has been a matter of ſome diſpute, and ſubmitted to with great reluctance; though it hath very clearly and learnedly been ſhewn by Sir Michael Foſter, that the practice of impreſſing, and granting powers to the admiralty for that purpoſe, is of very antient date, and hath been uniformly continued by a regular ſeries of precedents to the preſent time; whence he concludes it to be a part of the common law. The difficulty ariſes from hence, that no ſtatute, or act of parliament, has expreſsly declared this power to be in the crown, though many of them very ſtrongly imply it.

Beſides this method of impreſſing (which is only defenſible from public neceſſity, ſuch as an actual rebellion or invaſion of the kingdom, to which all private conſiderations muſt give way) the principal trading cities, and ſometimes the government, offer bounty money to ſeamen who enter voluntarily into his majeſty's ſervice; and every foreign ſeaman, who, during a war, ſhall ſerve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipſo facto*.

But as impreſſing is generally conſidered as a groſs violation of the natural rights of mankind, ſo has the bounty money, which ſeldom exceeds 40s. proved ineffectual. The wages of ſeamen on board of merchantmen, in time of war, is uſually 50 s. or upwards, per month; on board of the royal navy, they only receive 22 s. They are flattered indeed with the hopes of prize money, which, if divided in a more equal and equitable manner, would produce the happieſt effects to this nation. There would then be leſs occaſion for bounty money, or preſſing; our fleets would be ſpeedily manned, and regularly ſupplied with experienced and able ſeamen. Since under Providence, not only the very exiſtence of this nation, its commerce and foreign ſettlements; but the liberties of Europe, and ſecurity of the proteſtant religion, ſolely depend on the ſtrength and ſucceſs of the Britiſh navy, which is the only mode of war we ought ever to engage in; it has been matter of ſurprize to every thinking, diſintereſted ſubject of theſe kingdoms, that neither the above-mentioned regulation, nor any other ſatisfactory ſcheme has yet taken place. That to enrich a few ſuperior officers, we ſhould deprive thoſe very men of their rights and liberty, to whoſe valour and intrepidity alone, in the day of public danger, we look for preſervation.

2. The method of ordering ſeamen in the royal fleet, and keeping up a regular diſcipline there, is directed by certain expreſs rules, articles, and orders, firſt enacted by the authority of parliament, ſoon after the reſtoration; but ſince new modelled and altered, after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, to remedy ſome defects which were of fatal conſequence in conducting the preceding war. In theſe articles of the navy, almoſt

every poſſible offence is ſet down, and the puniſhment thereof annexed, in which reſpect the ſeamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land ſervice; whoſe articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleaſure of the crown.

3. With regard to the privileges conferred on ſailors, they are pretty much the ſame with thoſe conferred on ſoldiers; with regard to relief, when maimed or wounded, or ſuperannuated, either by county rates, or the royal hoſpital at Greenwich; with regard alſo to the exerciſe of trades, and the power of making teſtaments; and, farther, no ſeaman aboard his majeſty's ſhips can be arreſted for any debt, unleſs the ſame be ſworn to amount to at leaſt 20 pounds; though by the annual mutiny act, a ſoldier may be arreſted for a debt which extends to half that value, but not to leſs amount.

I ſhall cloſe this account of the military and maritime ſtrength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by obſerving, that though ſea officers and ſailors, are ſubject to a perpetual act of parliament, which anſwers the annual military act which is paſſed for the government of the army, yet neither of thoſe bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction in civil or criminal caſes, but in a few inſtances of no great moment. The ſoldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magiſtrate, to enable him to preſerve the peace, againſt all attempts to break it. The military officer, who commands the ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions, is to take his directions from the magiſtrate, and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo fatal. The civil magiſtrate, however, is extremely cautious in calling for the military on theſe occaſions, upon any commotion, whatever *.

Coins.] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, ſhillings, and pence, twelve pence making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one pound, which is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces conſiſt only of guineas, halves, and quarters: the ſilver, of crowns, half-crowns, and ſhillings, ſixpences, groats, and even down to a ſilver penny; and the copper money, only of half-pence, and farthings. In a country like England, where the intrinſic value of the ſilver is very near equal, and in ſome coins, crown pieces particularly, ſuperior to the nominal, the coinage of ſilver money is a matter of great conſequence; and yet the preſent

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* The Royal Navy of Great Britain, as it ſtood at the cloſe of the Year 1762.

N. B. Thoſe in *Italics* were taken from the French or Spaniards.

First Rates.	Guns.	Guns.	Guns.
Guns.	90 Prince	64 Belleiſle	74 Dragon
100 Britannia	90 Princeſs Royal	64 *Bienfaiſant*	74 Dublin
100 Royal George	84 Royal William	70 Buckingham	64 Elizabeth
100 *R. Sovereign*	90 Sandwich	70 Burford	64 Eſſex
Second Rates.	90 Union	80 Cambridge	74 Fame
90 Blenheim	Third Rates.	64 Captain	80 *Foudroyant*
90 Duke	64 Africa	74 *Centaur*	70 Grafton
90 St. George	64 *Alcide*	70 Chicheſter	64 Hampton-Court
90 Namur	74 Arrogant	74 Cornwall	74 Hercules
90 *Neptune*	64 Bedford	74 Culloden	74 Hero
90 Ocean	64 *Belliqueux*	64 Defiance	74 Kent
	74 Bellona	66 Devonſhire	74 Lenox
		70 Dorſetſhire	74 *Magnanime*

preſent ſtate of the national currency, ſeems to demand a new coinage of ſhillings and ſixpences, the intrinſic value of the latter being many of them worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public loſing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Beſides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the Tower of London, but they are not generally current, nor is any ſilver coin that is lower than ſixpence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The title of the king of England, is, By the Grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The deſignation of the kings of England was formerly, his or her Grace, or Highneſs, till Henry VIII. to put himſelf on a footing with the emperor Charles V. aſſumed that of Majeſty, but the old deſignation was not aboliſhed, till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign.

Since the acceſſion of the preſent royal family of Great-Britain, anno 1714, the royal atchievement is marſhalled as follows: quarterly, in the

Guns.		Guns.		Guns.		Guns.	
68	Marlborough	50	Deptford	32	*Bologne*	32	*Veſtal*
74	Mars	60	Dunkirk	32	Boſton	44	Woolwich
64	*Modeſte*	60	Edgar	32	*Blonde*		SIXTH RATES.
64	Monmouth	50	Falkland	36	Brilliant		
64	Naſſau	50	Falmouth	32	*Creſcent*	28	Actæon
80	Newark	60	*Firme*	38	*Danae*	28	*Active*
74	Norfolk	60	*Florentine*	32	*Diana*	20	Aldborough
70	Northumberland	50	Guernſey	44	Dover	24	*Amazon*
70	Orford	50	Hampſhire	32	*Emerald*	28	*Aquilon*
64	Pr. Frederick	60	Jerſey	44	Enterprize	28	Argo
80	Princeſs Amelia	60	*Intrepide*	32	*Flora*	24	Arundel
60	Princeſs Mary	50	*Iſis*	44	Goſport	28	Boreas
64	Revenge	60	Lion	32	Juno	28	Cerberus
74	Shrewſbury	60	Medway	32	Lark	24	Coventry
70	Somerſet	60	Montague	44	Launceſton	20	Deal-Caſtle
74	Sterling-Caſtle	50	Norwich	30	Looe	24	Dolphin
74	*Superb*	60	Nottingham	44	Lynn	24	*Echo*
70	Swiftſure	50	*Oriflame*	36	*Melampe*	20	Flamborough
74	*Temeraire*	60	Panther	32	Minerva	24	Fowey
70	Temple	60	Pembroke	32	Montreal	24	Garland
74	Terrible	50	Portland	32	*Niger*	20	Gibraltar
74	Thunderer	50	Preſton	36	Pallas	20	Glaſgow
74	Torbay	60	Prince of Orange	44	Penzance	20	Greyhound
64	*Trident*	60	Rippon	44	Phœnix	24	Hind
74	Valiant	50	Romney	44	Prince Edw.	24	Kennington
70	Vanguard	50	Rocheſter	32	Quebec	28	Levant
74	Warſpight	50	Saliſbury	44	*Rainbow*	24	Lively
	FOURTH RATES.	50	Sutherland	36	*Renown*	28	Liverpool
		60	Weymouth	32	*Repulſe*	28	Lizard
60	Achilles	50	Wincheſter	32	Richmond	24	Ludlow-Caſtle
60	America	60	Windſor	32	Saphire	28	Maidſtone
60	Anſon	60	York	32	Southampton	24	Mercury
50	Antelope		FIFTH RATES.	32	Stagg	28	Milford
50	Aſſiſtance			32	Thames	24	Nightingale
50	Centurion	32	Adventurer	32	*Thetis*	24	Portmahon
50	Chatham	32	Alarm	30	Torrington	20	Roſe
50	Cheſter	32	*Arethuſa*	32	Tweed	24	Rye
	Dreadnought	32	Æolus	36	Venus	20	Scarborough

the firſt grand quarter, *Mars, three lions paſſant guardant, in pale, Sol*, the imperial enſigns of England, impaled, with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, *Sol, a lion rampant within a double treſſure flowered and counterflowered, with fleurs-de-lis, Mars.* The ſecond quarter is the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol.* The third, the enſigns of Ireland; which is, *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, ſtringed Luna.* And the fourth grand quarter is his preſent majeſty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions paſſant guardant, Sol*, for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is, *Sol, ſenée of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter*, having antient

Guns.	
20	Seaford
20	Seahorſe
28	Shannon
24	Sheerneſs
24	Solebay
20	*Syren*
24	Surprize
28	Tartar
24	*Terpſichore*
28	Trent
28	*Valeur*
28	Unicorn
24	Wager

SLOOPS.

14	Albany
10	Alderney
10	Antigua
12	Badger
16	Baltimore
10	Barbadoes
10	Bonetta
8	Cruzier
18	Cygnet
10	Diligence
14	Diſpatch
10	Druid

Guns.	
14	Eſcorte
16	Favourite
18	Ferret
8	*Flambro's Prize*
8	Fly
14	Fortune
14	Grampus
10	Granado
8	Goree
8	Happy
8	Hazard
14	Hornet
14	Hound
10	Hunter
14	Jamaica
10	King's Fiſher
8	Laurel
6	Lurcher
18	Merlin
16	Mortar
18	Nautilus
8	Peggy
10	Pomona
10	Otter
14	Pelican
14	Porcupine

Guns.	
18	Poſtillion
8	Ranger
	Racehorſe
14	Saltaſh
8	Savage
14	Senegal
14	Sardome
8	Speedwell
10	Spy
14	Swallow
14	Swift
14	Swan
16	Tamer
	Terror
10	Thunder
14	Trial
14	Vulture
8	Waſp
16	Weazle
8	Wolf
10	*Zephir*

BOMB VESSELS.

Baſiliſk
Blaſt
Carcaſs
Firedrake
Furnace
Infernal

Fire-Sh. no Guns.

Ætna
Cormorant
Grampus
Lightning
Pluto
Raven
Roman Emperor
Proſerpine
Salamander
Strombolo
Veſuvius

YACHTS.

Guns.	
10	Dorſet
8	Fubbs
8	Katharine
	Auguſta

STORESHIPS.

20	Crown
24	South Sea Caſtle.

Ships out of Commiſſion and Building.

Rates.	Guns.	Names.
3	74	Albion
3	64	Aſia
4	60	Auguſta
5	44	Angleſea
5	32	Aurora
2	90	*Barfleur*
		Ditto, a new ſhip
3	80	Boyne
4	50	Briſtol
6	24	Blandford
	90	Blenheim
		Hoſpital-ſhip
3	74	Canada
4	60	Canterbury
3	74	*Courageux*
4	50	Colcheſter
3	74	Defiance
6	24	Experiment
4	60	Eagle
3	64	Edinburgh
4	60	Exeter

Rates.	Guns.	Names.
5	44	Eltham
5	44	Expedition
3	80	*Formidable*
4	50	Glouceſter
5	44	Glory
6	28	Guadalupe
5	44	Haſtings
5	44	Hector
5	30	Jaſon
2	90	London
5	44	Mary Galley
		Martin Sloop
		Mary Yacht
3	74	Monarch
4	50	Nonſuch
3	80	Pr. Carolina
4	60	Pr. Louiſa
4	60	Plymouth
5	44	Poole
1	90	Queen
1	100	Royal Anne

Rates.	Guns.	Names.
3	84	Ramillies
3	64	Royal Oak
4	60	Rupert
4	50	Ruby
		R. Charlotte Yacht
3	64	Suffolk
4	60	St. Alban's
6	24	Sphinx
3	74	Triumph
	28	Vengeance
	10	Viper
1	100	Victory
		Vulture Sloop
		Warwick
4		Winchelſea
5		
4	60	Worceſter
		William and Mary Yacht
3	64	Yarmouth

antient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horſe currant Luna ente* (or grafted) *in baſe*; and, *in a ſhield ſurtout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne*; the whole, within a garter, as ſovereign of that moſt noble order of knighthood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who aſſumed it to ſhew his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almoſt every king of England had a particular badge or cognizance: ſometimes a white hart, ſometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is ſaid Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his miſtreſſes, and ſometimes a portcullis, which was that of the houſe of Lancaſter: many of the princes of which were born in the caſtle of Beaufort. The white roſe was the bearing of the houſe of York; and that of Lancaſter, by way of contra-diſtinction, adopted the red. The thiſtle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very ſignificant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſit*. None ſhall ſafely provoke me.

The titles of the king's eldeſt ſon, are, Prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothſay, earl of Cheſter, electoral prince of Brunſwick and Lunenburgh, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the iſles, great ſteward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company.

The order of the garter, the moſt honourable of any in the world, was inſtituted by Edward III. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, who is always the king or queen of England, of 25 companions, called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, ſuppoſed to be the tutelar ſaint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, ſuſpended from a blue ribband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but now croſſes their bodies from the ſhoulder. The garter, however, which is buckled under the left knee, gives the name to the order, and on it was

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Complement of Men, and Weight of Metal, in the Royal Navy.

Ships of three Decks.						Guns.	Men.				
Guns.	Men.	Metal.				60	420	24	12	6	
100	850	42	24	12	6	60	400	24	9	6	
90	750	32	18	12	6	50	350	24	12	6	
80	6 o	32	18	9	6	50	300	18	9	6	
Ships of two Decks.						44 40	250	18	9	6	
80 74	650	32	18	9		Frigates of one Deck.					
70	520	32	18	9		36	240	12	6		
68	Ditto					32	220	12	6		
66	Ditto					28	200	9	4		
64	480	24	12	6		20	160	9	4		

When a ſhip of war becomes old or unfit for ſervice, the ſame name is transferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom. While a ſingle beam of the old ſhip remains, the name cannot be changed unleſs by act of parliament.

The Pay of the Officers of the Royal Navy in each Rate. FLAG OFFICERS, and the CAPTAINS to Flags. per day.

Admirals and Commanders in Chief of the Fleet					———	5	0	0
An Admiral	—	—	———	———	———	3	10	0
Vice Admiral	—	———	———	———	———	2	10	0
Rear Admiral	———	———	———	———	———	1	15	0
Firſt Captain to the Commander in Chief				———	—	1	15	0
Second ditto, and Captain to other Admirals					———	1	0	0
—to V. Admirals } if firſt or ſecond Rates, to }					———	0	16	0
—to R. Admirals } have the pay of ſuch Rates }					———	0	13	6

was engraved the words, *Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe.* Evil to him who evil thinks. Authors are divided as to the original of that motto, but it certainly alluded to the bad faith of the French king John, Edward's contemporary. This order is ſo reſpectable, that it has a prelate, who is the biſhop of Wincheſter, and a chancellor, who is the biſhop of Saliſbury, for the time being. It has likewiſe a regiſter, who is dean of Windſor, and a principal king at arms, called garter, whoſe office is to marſhal and manage the ſolemnities at the inſtallation, and feaſts of the knights. The place of inſtallation is Edward III.'s chapel, at Windſor, on which occaſion the knights appear in magnificent robes, appropriated to their order, and in their collars of SS.

Knights of the Bath, ſo called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are ſuppoſed to have been inſtituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399, but the order ſeems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other ſolemn occaſions, and they wear

OFFICERS.	*Firſt.*			*Second.*			*Third.*			*Fourth.*			*Fifth.*			*Sixth.*		
	l.	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*
Captain *per day*	1	0	0	0	16	0	0	13	6	0	10	0	0	8	0	0	8	0
Lieutenant *per day*	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	4	0
Maſter *per month*	9	2	0	8	8	0	7	6	0	6	12	0	6	2	8	5	0	0
2d maſter & pilots of yachts each 3*l* 10*s*																		
Maſter's mate	3	6	0	3	0	0	2	16	2	2	7	10	2	2	0	2	2	0
Midſhipman	2	5	0	2	0	0	1	17	6	1	13	9	1	10	0	1	10	0
Schoolmaſter	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	17	6	1	13	9	1	10	0			
Captain's clerk	2	5	0	2	0	0	1	17	6	1	13	9						
Quarter-maſter	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0
Quar. maſter's mate	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	5	0
Boatſwain	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	2	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0
Boatſwain's mate	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0
Yeoman of the ſheets	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	6	0
Coxſwain	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	6	0
Maſter ſail maker	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	14	0	1	12	0	1	10	0
Sail maker's mate	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0
Sail maker's crew	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0
* Gunner	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	2	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0
Gunner's mate	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0
Yeo. of powder room	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0
Quarter gunner *	1	6	0	1	6	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0
Armourer	2	5	0	2	0	0	1	17	6	1	13	9	1	10	0	1	10	0
Armourer's mate	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	5	0
Gunſmith	1	5	0	1	5	0												
Carpenter	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	2	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0
Carpenter's mate	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	16	0	1	14	0	1	12	0	1	10	0
Carpenter's crew	1	6	0	1	6	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0
Purſer —	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	2	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0
Steward —	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	3	4	1	0	8	1	0	0
Steward's mate	1	0	8	1	0	8	1	0	8	1	0	8						
Cook —	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	4	0
Surgeon †	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0
Surgeon's firſt mate	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0
—— ſecond mate	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0			
—— third mate	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0									
—— fourth and fifth	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0									
Chaplain ‡	0	19	0	0	19	0	0	19	0	0	19	0						

* *One to every four guns.*

† *Beſides 2d. a month from each man.*

‡ *Beſides 4d. a month from each man.*

wear a ſcarlet ribband hanging from the left ſhoulder, with an enamelled medal of three crowns, and the motto, *Tria juncta in unum.* Three joined in one. This order being diſcontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 17th of June, 1725, when 18 noblemen, and as many commoners of the firſt rank, were inſtalled knights of the order, with great ceremony, at Weſtminſter, where the place of inſtallment is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are ſplendid and ſhewy, and the number of the knights is undetermined. The biſhop of Rocheſter is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewiſe a regiſter, and other officers.

The order of the thiſtle, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned in the account of that kingdom.

The origin of the Engliſh peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquiſſes, earls, viſcounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can ſcarce be ſaid to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counſellors, there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were inſtituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000 l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulſter in Ireland: but, at preſent, the number of theſe knights amount to 700.

A knight is a term uſed almoſt in every nation in Europe, and in general ſignifies a ſoldier ſerving on horſeback, a rank of no mean eſtimation in antient armies, and entitling the party himſelf to the appellation of Sir. In the common laws they are called milites or ſoldiers, and they are made by the king laying a ſword upon their ſhoulders, and deſiring them to riſe by the title of Sir. It is a mark of perſonal regard from the crown, and therefore the title does not deſcend to poſterity. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England, ſuch as thoſe of bannerets, batchelors, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now diſuſed.

It is ſomewhat difficult to account for the original of the word eſquire, which formerly ſignified a perſon bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called armigeri. This title denoted any perſon, who, by his birth or property, was intitled to bear arms; but it is at preſent applied promiſcuouſly to any man, who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman without trade, and even a tradeſman, if he is a juſtice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, ſo late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck, a collar of SS. and giving him a pair of ſilver ſpurs. Gower, the poet, appears from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an eſquire by creation. Serjeants-at-law, and other ſerjeants belonging to the king's houſhold, juſtices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law and phyſic, take place of other eſquires, and it is remarkable, that all the ſons of dukes, marquiſes, earls, viſcounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than eſquires, though commonly deſigned by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now confounded with the mean ranks of people, is the root of all Engliſh honour, for every nobleman is preſumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the firſt inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that ſettled on the oppoſite ſhore:

a ſuppoſition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

In the account I have given of the laws and conſtitution, may be found great part of the hiſtory of England, which I ſhall not here repeat, but confine myſelf to the different gradations of events, in a chronological order, connected with the improvements of arts, ſciences, commerce, and manufactures, at their proper periods, and that in a manner ſuitable to the propoſed brevity of this work.

When Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Chriſt, meditated a conqueſt of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæſar wrote the hiſtory of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vaſt difficulties, and attended by ſuch advantages over the iſlanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary, and other authors, as well as Cæſar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indeciſive; nor did the Romans receive the leaſt advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the iſland than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Cæſar's deſcent, were governed, in time of war, by a political confederacy, of which Caſſibelan, whoſe territories lay in Hertfordſhire, and ſome of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for ſome time.

In their manner of life, as deſcribed by Cæſar, and the beſt authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; but they certainly ſowed corn, though, perhaps, they chiefly ſubſiſted upon animal food and milk. Their cloathing was ſkins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were dexterous in the management of their chariots beyond credibility, and they fought with lances, darts, and ſwords. Women ſometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as ſovereigns of their particular diſtricts. They favoured a primogeniture, or ſeniority, in their ſucceſſion to royalty, but ſet it aſide on the ſmalleſt inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluiſh or greeniſh caſt; and they are ſaid to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies on their ſkins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themſelves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original huſband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Auguſtus Cæſar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great-Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæſar, about forty-two years after the birth of Chriſt, undertook an expedition in perſon, in which he ſeems to have been ſucceſsful againſt Britain. His conqueſts, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicia, though a woman, made noble ſtands againſt the Romans. The former was taken priſoner, after a deſperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the hiſtories of the times. Boadicia being oppreſſed in a manner that diſgraces the Roman name, and defeated, diſdained to ſurvive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after ſubduing South-Britain, carried his arms,

arms, as has been already ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland, northwards, into Caledonia, where his ſucceſſors had no reaſon to boaſt of their progreſs, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this iſland, they erected thoſe walls I have ſo often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invaſions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; (the latter are thought to have been the ſouthern Britons retired northwards) and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and cuſtoms, became familiar in Britain. There ſeems, however, to be no great foundation for this aſſertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans conſidered Britain chiefly as a nurſery for their armies abroad, on account of the ſuperior ſtrength of body and courage of the inhabitants, when diſciplined. That this was the caſe, appears plainly enough from the defenceleſs ſtate of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that iſland. I have already taken notice, that during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; but it is certain, that under them the South-Britons became the moſt abject ſlaves, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave reſiſtance againſt the conquerors of the world. For though the Britons were unqueſtionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, we know of no ſtruggle they made, in later times, for their independency at home, notwithſtanding the many favourable opportunities that offered. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this iſland, aſſiſted by the Britons, were entirely employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts, and they appeared to have been in no pain about the ſouthern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of thoſe barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire, with infinite numbers, fury, and danger to Rome itſelf *, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the Britiſh youth, for the defence of the capital and center of the empire. As the Roman forces decreaſed in Britain, the Scots and Picts, who had always oppoſed the progreſs of the Romans in this iſland, advanced the more boldly into the ſouthern parts, carrying terror and deſolation over the whole country. The effeminated Britons were ſo habituated to ſlavery, and accuſtomed to have recourſe to the Romans for defence, that they again and again implored the return of the Romans, who as often drove back the invaders to their mountains and antient limits beyond the walls. But theſe enterpriſes ſerved only to protract the miſeries of the Britons; and the Romans, now reduced to extremities at home, and fatigued with theſe diſtant expeditions, acquainted the Britons, that they muſt no longer look to them for protection, exhorted them to arm in their own defence; and, that they might leave the iſland with a good grace, they aſſiſted the Britons in rebuilding with ſtone the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, which they lined with forts and watch towers; and having done this good office, took their laſt farewell of Britain, about the year 448, after having been maſters of the moſt fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invaſion of Julius Cæſar, 500 years.

The Scots and Picts, finding the whole iſland finally deſerted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a rage and fury

* See the Introduction.

peculiar to northern nations in thoſe ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inſpire. The poor Britons, like a helpleſs family, deprived of their parent and protector, already ſubdued by their own fears, had again recourſe to Rome, and ſent over their miſerable epiſtle for relief (ſtill upon record) which was addreſſed in theſe words: *To Aetius, thrice conſul: The groans of the Britons:* and told them, after other lamentable complaints, *That the barbarians drove them to the ſea, and the ſea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of periſhing by the ſword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general, of any ſuccours from that ſide, they began to conſider what other nation they might call over to their relief: and we have from Gildas, who was himſelf a Briton (and deſcribes the degeneracy of his countrymen in lamentable ſtrains) but very dark confuſed hints of their officers, and the names of ſome of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, who ſtruck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horſa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in thoſe days maſters of what is now called the Engliſh channel, and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia, and the northern parts of Germany, being overſtocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved by checking the progreſs of the Scots and Picts; and had the iſland of Thanet allowed them for their reſidence. But their own country was ſo populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain ſo agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time Hengiſt and Horſa began to meditate a ſettlement for themſelves; and freſh ſupplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons ſoon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent ſtruggle of near 150 years, they ſubdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and deſcendants ſtill remain.

Literature at this time in England was ſo rude, that we know but little of its hiſtory. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public tranſactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a ſpecies of men whom they held in great veneration. Nennius, who ſeems to have been contemporary with Gildas, mentions, indeed, a few facts, but nothing that can be relied on, or that can form a connected hiſtory. We can, therefore, only mention the names of Merlin, a reputed prince and prophet; Pendragon, the celebrated Arthur, and Thalieſſin, whoſe works are ſaid to be extant, with others of leſs note. All we know upon the whole is, that after repeated bloody wars, in which the Britons were ſometimes the enemies, and ſometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons became maſters of all England, to the ſouth of Adrian's, or rather Severus's wall; but the Scots and Picts ſeem to have been maſters of all the territory to the north of that, though they ſuffered the Britons, who had been driven northwards, to be governed by their own tributary kings; an intermixture that has created great doubts and confuſions in hiſtory; which I ſhall not here pretend to unravel.

I have already given a ſketch of the conſtitution and government which the Saxons imported into England, and which form by far the moſt valuable part of their antient hiſtory.

We have no account of their converſion to Chriſtianity but from Popiſh writers, who generally endeavour to magnify the merits of their ſuperiors. According to them, Ethelbert, king of Kent, who claimed pre-eminence in the heptarchy, as being deſcended from Hengiſt, married the king of France's daughter, and ſhe being a Chriſtian, Pope Gregory the

the Great ſeized that opportunity to enforce the converſion of her huſband to Chriſtianity, or rather to Popery. For that purpoſe, about the year 596, he ſent over to England the famous Auſtin, the monk, who probably found no great difficulty in converting the king and his people; and alſo Sebert, king of the Eaſt Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul in London. The monk then, by his maſter's order, attempted to bring the churches of the Britons in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly as to the celebration of Eaſter; but finding a ſtout reſiſtance on the part of the biſhops and clergy, he perſuaded his Chriſtian converts to maſſacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 prieſts and monks, and reduced the Britons, who were found in the heptarchy, to a ſtate of ſlavery, which ſome think gave riſe to the antient villenage in England. Auſtin is accounted the firſt archbiſhop of Canterbury, and died in 605, as his convert Ethelbert did ſoon after.

It does not fall within my deſign to relate the ſeparate hiſtory of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is ſufficient to ſay, that the pope, in Auſtin's time, ſupplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popiſh clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the moſt deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and ſanctity of his holineſs. Hence it was, that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by prieſts and monks; and as they ſaw convenient, perſuaded their kings either to ſhut themſelves up in cloiſters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finiſhed their days; no leſs than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, reſigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina, king of the Weſt-Saxons, though in other reſpects he was a wiſe and brave prince. The bounty of thoſe Anglo-Saxon kings to the ſee of Rome, was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald king of Mercia, whom I have already mentioned, impoſed an annual tax of a penny upon every houſe, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence.

The Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, commonly choſe one who was to be the head of their political confederacy, for regulating their concerns, but without any juriſdiction in the dominions of others. The clergy, we may eaſily ſuppoſe, had great influence on thoſe occaſions; and the hiſtory of the Saxon heptarchy is little more than that of crimes, treaſons, and murders, committed by the inſtigations of prieſts and monks. Even their criminal law, as I have already inferred, admitted of a pecuniary compenſation for murder, and regicide itſelf.

Under all thoſe diſadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in compariſon of the nations on the continent; becauſe they were free from the Saracens, or ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the Eaſt, upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain, Italy and France. London was then a place of very conſiderable trade; and, if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles, quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Weſſex, a ſum in ſilver equal to 90,000l. ſterling, in the year 694. England, therefore, we may ſuppoſe to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable Bede then compoſed his church hiſtory of Britain. The Saxon chronicle is one of the oldeſt and moſt authentic monuments of hiſtory that any nation can produce. An architecture, ſuch as it was, with ſtone and glaſs working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Nor-

thumbrian prelate who was ſerved in ſilver plate. It muſt, however, be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouſes are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this ſtate was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldeſt remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who firſt arrived in Britain.

Charles the Great, otherwiſe Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany; and I have, in a former part of this work, mentioned the commercial treaty between him and Offa, king of Mercia, to whom he ſent in a preſent, a Hungarian ſword, a belt, and two ſilken veſts. Egbert had been obliged, by ſtate jealouſies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the perſecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the Weſt Saxons. Egbert acquired at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and ſoon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own perſon, but without ſubduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Engle-lond, or England; but there is reaſon to believe that ſome part of England continued ſtill to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid, perhaps, a ſmall tribute to Egbert. His proſperity excited the envy of the northern nations, who, under the name of Danes, then infeſted the ſeas, and were no ſtrangers to the coaſts of England; for about the year 832, they made deſcents upon Kent and Dorſetſhire, where they defeated Egbert in perſon, and carried off abundance of booty to their ſhips. About two years after they landed in Cornwall, and, though they were joined by the Corniſh Britons, they were driven out of England by Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Wincheſter, his chief reſidence.

Egbert was ſucceeded by his ſon Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. By this time England had become a ſcene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Daniſh invaſions; and Ethelwolf, after ſome time bravely oppoſing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngeſt ſon, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the Engliſh conſtitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occaſion (copies of which are ſtill remaining) are ſo prodigious, that they ſhew his brain to have been touched by his devotion. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his ſons (Athelſtan being then dead) Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the ſurviving ſon, left his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became maſters of the ſea-coaſts, and the fineſt counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greateſt princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in hiſtory. He fought ſeven battles with the Danes, with various ſucceſs, and when defeated, he found reſources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time, reduced to an uncommon ſtate of miſery, being forced to live in the diſguiſe of a cowherd. He ſtill, however, kept up a ſecret correſpondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their aſſiſtance he gave the Danes many ſignal

over-

overthrows, till at laſt he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes, who had been ſettled in it, to ſwear obedience to his government: even part of Wales courted his protection; ſo that he is thought to have been the moſt powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raiſing a maritime power in England, by which he ſecured her coaſts from future invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the univerſity of Oxford about the year 895: He divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived thoſe diviſions, and the uſe of juries, which had fallen into deſuetude by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was himſelf not only a ſcholar, but an author; and he tells us himſelf, that upon his acceſſion to the throne he had ſcarcely a lay ſubject who could read Engliſh, or an eccleſiaſtic who underſtood Latin. He introduced ſtone and brick buildings to general uſe in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his ſubjects for many years after his death were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may ſeem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in Eaſt-India jewels; and William of Malmſbury ſays, that ſome of their gems were repoſited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Octher, about the year 890, a full diſcovery of the coaſts of Norway and Lapland, as far as Ruſſia; and he tells the king, in his memorial printed by Hakluyt, "that he ſailed along the "Norway coaſt, ſo far north as commonly the whale hunters uſe to tra-"vel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and uſeful allies in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, againſt the Danes. He is ſaid to have fought no leſs than fifty-ſix pitched battles with thoſe barbarians. He was inexorable againſt his corrupt judges, whom he uſed to hang up on public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is ſo completely amiable and heroic, that he is juſtly dignified with the epithet of the Great. I have been the more diffuſe on the hiſtory of Alfred's reign, as it is the moſt glorious of any in the Engliſh annals, though it did not extend to foreign conqueſts.

Alfred was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their barbarities and invaſions. He died in the year 925, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. This prince was ſuch an encourager of commerce as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages, on his own account, to the Mediterranean, ſhould be put upon a footing with a thane, or nobleman of the firſt rank. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws that archbiſhops, biſhops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. His dominions appear, however, to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vaſſals ſtill kept a footing in thoſe counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, and died in 941. The reigns of his ſucceſſors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or diſgraced by the influence of prieſts. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, but, like his predeceſſors, he was the ſlave of prieſts, particularly St. Dunſtan. His reign, however, was pacific and glorious, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the

territory to the north of the Tine. He was ſucceeded, in 975, by his eldeſt ſon Edward, who was barbarouſly murdered by his ſtep-mother, whoſe ſon Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The Engliſh nation, at that time, by the help of prieſts, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became poſſeſſed of the fineſt part of the country, while their countrymen made ſometimes dreadful deſcents in the weſtern parts. In the year 1002 they had made ſuch ſettlements in England, that Ethelred was obliged to give way to a general maſſacre of them by the Engliſh, but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind, however, were undoubtedly made in particular counties, but they ſerved only to enrage the Daniſh king, Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two ſons, out of England into Normandy, a province of France, facing the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of England, at that time governed by its own princes, ſtiled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was ſucceeded by his ſon Canute the Great, whom I have already mentioned, but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vaſt army, and obliged Edmund Ironſide, Ethelred's ſon, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being aſſaſſinated, Canute ſucceeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his ſon, Harold Hareſoot, did nothing memorable, and his ſucceſſor, Hardicanute, was ſo degenerate a prince that the Daniſh royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confeſſor, mounted it, though Edgar Etheling, by being deſcended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Edward the Confeſſor was a ſoft, good-natured prince, a great benefactor to the church, and exceſſively fond of the Normans, with whom he had reſided. He was governed by his miniſter, earl Godwin, and his ſons, the eldeſt of whom was Harold. He durſt not reſent, though he felt, their ignominious treatment; and perceiving his kinſman Edgar Etheling to be of a ſoft diſpoſition, neither he nor the Engliſh paid much regard to Etheling's hereditary right; ſo that the Confeſſor, as is ſaid, deviſed the ſucceſſion of his crown upon his death to William duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain, that upon the death of the Confeſſor, in the year 1066, Harold, ſon to Godwin earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a baſtard, was then in the unrivalled poſſeſſion of that great dutchy, and reſolved to aſſert his right to the crown of England. For that purpoſe he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vaſſals, to join him, and by way of anticipation, he parcelled out the territory of England to each in proportion to the number of the men he brought into the field, making it thereby their intereſt to aſſiſt him effectually. By theſe means he collected 40,000 of the braveſt and moſt regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarraſſed with freſh invaſions from the Danes, William landed in England without oppoſition. Harold returning from the north, encountered William at Haſtings, in Suſſex, with a ſuperior army, but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066; and thus ended the Saxon monarchy in England, which had continued for more than 600 years.

I cannot find any great improvements, either in arts or arms, which the Saxons had made in England ſince the firſt invaſion of the Danes. Thoſe barbarians ſeem to have carried off with them almoſt all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons, for I perceive that Alfred the Great left

no

no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100 l. each. The return of the Danes to England, and the victories which had been gained over them, had undoubtedly brought back great part of the money and bullion they had carried off; for we are told that Harold, in his laſt victory over the Danes, regained as much treaſure as twelve luſty men could carry off. We have, indeed, very particular accounts of the value of proviſions and manufactures in thoſe days; a palfrey coſt 10 s. an acre of land (according to biſhop Fleetwood in his Chronicon Pretioſum) 1 s. and a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100 s. but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which thoſe ſhillings bore to the preſent ſtandard of money, though many ingenious treatiſes have been written on that head. A ſheep was eſtimated at 1 s. an ox was computed at 6 s. a cow at 4 s. a man at 3 l. The board wages of a child, the firſt year, was 8 s. The tenants of Shireburne were obliged at their choice to pay either 6 d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much uſed. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceaſed. Entails were ſometimes practiſed in thoſe times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can ſay little, but that they were in general a rude, uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unſkilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to ſubmiſſion under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and diſorder. Even ſo low as the reign of Canute, they ſold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their beſt quality was their military courage, which yet was not ſupported by diſcipline or conduct. Even the Norman hiſtorians, notwithſtanding the low ſtate of the arts in their own country, ſpeak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invaſion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conqueſt put the people in a ſituation of receiving ſlowly from abroad the rudiments of ſcience and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated ſtate might be owing to the clergy, who always diſcouraged manufactures.

We are, however, to diſtinguiſh between the ſecular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magiſtrates. The latter depended upon the ſee of Rome, and directed the conſciences of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often a bloody ſet. A great deal of the Saxon barbariſm was likewiſe owing to their continual intercourſe with the continent: and the Daniſh invaſions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidſt all thoſe defects, public and perſonal liberty were well underſtood and guarded by the Saxon inſtitutions; and we owe to them, at this day, the moſt valuable privileges of Engliſh ſubjects.

The loſs which both ſides ſuffered at the battle of Haſtings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors ſay, that Harold was ſo impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, ſo that the advantage of numbers was on the ſide of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold ſeems to have decided the day; and William, with very little further difficulty, took poſſeſſion of the throne, and partly new modelled the whole conſtitution of England in the manner I have already deſcribed, by converting all the lands into knights fees *, which are ſaid to have amounted to

* Four hides of land made one knight's-fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's-fee: and when Doomſday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

to 62,000, which were held of the Norman, and other great perſons who had aſſiſted him in his conqueſt, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave, for inſtance, to one of his barons, the whole county of Cheſter, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almoſt independant of the crown: and here, according to ſome hiſtorians, we have the riſe of the feudal law in England. William found it no eaſy matter to keep poſſeſſion of the crown. Edgar Etheling, and his ſiſter, the true Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms and formed conſpiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, eſpecially after he had made a peace with Malcolm, king of Scotland, who married Etheling's ſiſter; but not without exerciſing horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons, whom he obliged to put out their candles and fires every evening at eight o'clock, upon the ringing of a bell, called the *curfew*. He introduced Norman laws and language. He built the ſtone ſquare tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; and bridled the country with forts, and diſarmed the old inhabitants; in ſhort, he attempted every thing poſſible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution.

He cauſed a general ſurvey of all the lands of England to be made, or rather to be compleated, (for it was begun in Edward the Confeſſor's time) and an account to be taken of the villains, ſlaves, and live ſtock upon each eſtate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomſday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repoſe of this fortunate and victorious king was diſturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldeſt ſon Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now aſſumed the government as ſovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the riſe of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable atchievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in antient or modern hiſtory. William ſeeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his uſual vigour, and, with incredible celerity, tranſporting a brave Engliſh army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finiſhed the war, in the year 1087, the 61ſt of his age, and 21ſt of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

The above are the moſt material tranſactions of William's reign; and it may be further obſerved, that by the Norman conqueſt, England not only loſt the true line of her antient Saxon kings, but alſo her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where being kindly received by king Malcolm, they eſtabliſhed themſelves; and what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or Engliſh, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

The ſucceſſion to the crown of England was diſputed between the Conqueror's ſons Robert and William, (commonly called Rufus) and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have, therefore, been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewiſe hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and conſequently was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellious people. About this time the cruſades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the firſt to engage, accommodated matters with William for a ſum of money, which he levied from the clergy.

clergy. William behaved with great generoſity towards Edgar Etheling and the court of Scotland, notwithſtanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter. He was accidentally ſhot through the heart, by one Tyrrel, anno 1100, as he was hunting in New-Foreſt, from whence his father had baniſhed the huſbandman and legal poſſeſſor. He is chiefly accuſed of rapacioufneſs and oppreſſion; but the circumſtances of his reign had great demands for money, which he had no other means of raiſing but from a luxurious, over-grown clergy, who had engroſſed all the riches of the kingdom.

This prince built Weſtminſter-hall as it now ſtands, and added ſeveral works to the Tower, which he ſurrounded with a wall and ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the ſea, which overflowed great part of earl Godwin's eſtate in Kent, and formed thoſe ſhallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin-Sands.

He was ſucceeded by his brother Henry I. ſurnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be ſaid to have purchaſed the throne, firſt by his brother's treaſures, which he ſeized at Wincheſter; and, ſecondly, by a charter, in which he reſtored his ſubjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings: thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the antient Saxon line. His reign in a great meaſure reſtored the clergy to their influence in the ſtate, and they formed as it were a ſeparate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulſions in England. Henry, partly by force, and partly by ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of his brother Robert's perſon, and dutchy of Normandy; and, with a moſt ungenerous meanneſs, detained him a priſoner for 28 years, till the time of his death; and in the mean while Henry quieted his conſcience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but ſucceſsful war with France; and before his death he ſettled the ſucceſſion upon his daughter the empreſs Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond huſband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a ſurfeit, in the 78th year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithſtanding the late ſettlement of ſucceſſion, the crown of England was claimed, and ſeized by Stephen, earl of Blois, the ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her ſon were then abroad; and Stephen was aſſiſted in his uſurpation by his brother the biſhop of Wincheſter, and the other great prelates, that he might hold his crown dependent as it were upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland, and a worthy ſubject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Glouceſter, who headed her party before her ſon grew up. A long and bloody war enſued, the clergy having abſolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of ſucceſſion; but at length the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken priſoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, ſhe impotently upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. Being now maſters of the ſoil of England, they forgot the principles of their Normannic conſtitution, be-

cauſe

cauſe it rendered them dependent upon the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his acceſſion; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Glouceſter, who had been taken priſoner likewiſe, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had, in fact, excluded him from the government, by building 1100 caſtles (though they owed all their rights to the king) where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal ſubjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough adviſed to attempt to force them into a compliance with his will, by declaring his ſon Euſtace heir apparent to the kingdom; and exaſperated the clergy ſo much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was ſon to the empreſs; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This meaſure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehenſive of a ſecond conqueſt; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay ariſtocracy, propoſed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time loſt his ſon Euſtace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact inveſted with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his ſucceſſor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the Engliſh, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars, with raptures of joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne without a rival in 1154.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greateſt prince of his time. It is true, he owed his crown to the arms and valour of his grand uncle, David king of Scotland, and the virtues and wiſdom of the earl of Glouceſter; but Henry, as he grew up, diſcovered amazing abilities for government, having performed, in the ſixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the moſt experienced warriors. At his acceſſion to the throne, he found the condition of the Engliſh boroughs greatly bettered by the privileges granted them in the ſtruggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to ſuch a height, that if a bondman or ſervant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by ſuch reſidence made free. He erected Wallingford, Wincheſter, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the ſervices the inhabitants had done to his mother and himſelf; by diſcharging them from every burden, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of ſuch town; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vaſt acceſſion of power to the crown, becauſe the crown alone could ſupport the boroughs againſt their feudal tyrants, and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very ſcrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he reſumed the exceſſive grants of crown lands by Stephen, on pretence of his being an uſurper. He demoliſhed the rebellious caſtles that had been built; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their uſurpations not to be ſhaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous diſorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and diſorders, occaſioned by thoſe exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not atteſted by the moſt unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the Engliſh church, and chancellor of

of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his offices, and ſtill more ſo by his popularity, ariſing from a pretended ſanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal, cool and politic. The king aſſembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is ſtill famous for the conſtitutions there enacted; which, in fact, aboliſhed the authority of the Romiſh ſee over the Engliſh clergy. Becket finding it in vain to reſiſt the ſtream, ſigned thoſe conſtitutions, till they could be ratified by the pope; who, as he foreſaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the moſt determined ſpirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the ſee of Rome was at the ſame time in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king eſpouſed his quarrel. The effect was, that all the Engliſh clergy who were on the king's ſide were excommunicated, and the ſubjects abſolved from their allegiance. This diſconcerted Henry ſo much, that he ſubmitted to treat, and even to be inſulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the ſtreets of London in 1170. His return ſwelled his pride, and encreaſed his inſolence, till both became inſupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the firſt ſubject of his own dominions, he was heard to ſay, in the anguiſh of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Theſe words reached the ears of four knights, Hugh Norvil, William Tracy, Hugh Brito, and Richard Fitzwiſe; and without acquainting Henry of their intentions, they went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury. Henry was in no condition to ſecond the blind obedience of his knights; and the public reſentment roſe ſo high, on the ſuppoſition that he was privy to the murder, that he ſubmitted to be ſcourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in conſequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually reſumed their moſt valuable poſſeſſions in the north of England. This occaſioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken priſoner, and forced to pay for his ranſom 100,000 l. As the money and coins of Scotland were at that time of the ſame intrinſic value with thoſe of England, and as one half of the ranſom was paid in ready money, and the other at a time appointed, it has been obſerved by biſhop Nicholſon, and other very accurate authors, that, conſidering the vaſt difficulties which England, in the next reign, had to pay the ranſom of king Richard, Scotland muſt have then poſſeſſed more ready money than England, a fact, which though undoubted, is not eaſily accounted for upon any hiſtorical ſyſtem hitherto formed.

Henry likewiſe diſtinguiſhed his reign by the conqueſt of Ireland, which I ſhall have occaſion to mention when I treat of that iſland; and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, but the heireſs of Guienne and Poictou, he became almoſt as powerful as the French king himſelf in his own dominions, and the greateſt prince in Chriſtendom. Henry, however, in his old age was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleaſure, and embarraſſed himſelf in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Roſamond, which were reſented by his queen Eleanor, by her

ſeducing her ſons, Henry, (whom his father had unadviſedly cauſed to be crowned in his own life-time) Richard and John, into repeated rebellions, which at laſt broke the old man's ſpirit, and he died obſcurely at Chinou, in France, in the year 1189, and 58th of his age. The ſum he left in ready money, at his death, has, perhaps, been exaggerated, but the moſt moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000 l. of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were eſtabliſhed all over England, by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Thoſe corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of ſilk, ſeem ſtill to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the ſilk coronation robes, made uſe of by young Henry and his queen, coſt 87 l. 10 s. 4 d. in the ſheriff of London's account, printed by Mr. Madox; a vaſt ſum in thoſe days. Henry introduced the uſe of glaſs in windows into England, and ſtone arches in building. Malmſbury, and other hiſtorians who lived under him, are remarkable for their Latin ſtile, which in ſome places is both pure and elegant.

Henry ſo far aboliſhed the barbarous and abſurd practice of forfeiting ſhips, which had been wrecked on the coaſt, that if one man or animal were alive in the ſhip, the veſſel and goods were reſtored to the owners. This prince was alſo the firſt who levied a tax on the moveable or perſonal eſtates of his ſubjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy wars made them ſubmit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this taxation became, in following reigns, the uſual method of ſupplying the neceſſities of the crown. Since we are here collecting ſome detached inſtances, which ſhow the genius of theſe ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger, archbiſhop of York, and Richard, archbiſhop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when eccleſiaſtics could proceed to ſuch extremities. The pope's legate having ſummoned an aſſembly of the clergy at London; and as both the archbiſhops pretended to ſit on his right hand, this queſtion of precedency begot a controverſy between them. The monks and retainers of archbiſhop Richard fell upon Roger in the preſence of the cardinal and of the ſynod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and ſo bruiſed him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty ſaved from their violence.

Richard I. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, was the third, but eldeſt ſurviving ſon of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they perſuaded him to make a moſt magnificent ruinous cruſade to the Holy Land, where he took Aſcalon, and performed actions of valour that give countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After ſeveral glorious, but fruitleſs campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin, emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England he was treacherouſly ſurprized by the duke of Auſtria; who, in 1193, ſent him priſoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor at 150,000 marks, about 300,000 l. of our preſent money. According to contemporary authors, the raiſing of this ranſom proved to be a matter of ſo much difficulty, that all the church plate was melted down, and a tax was laid on all perſons, both eccleſiaſtical and ſecular, of one fourth part of their income, for one year; and twenty ſhillings on every knight's-fee; alſo one year's wool borrowed of the Ciſtercians, beſides money raiſed upon the clergy of the king's French dominions; and 2000 marks, which were furniſhed by William, king of Scotland,

Scotland, in gratitude for Richard's generous behaviour to him before his departure. Though all thoſe ſums are well authenticated, yet it is not eaſy to reconcile them with certain other money tranſactions of this reign, but by ſuppoſing that Richard carried off with him, and expended abroad, all the viſible ſpecie in the kingdom; and that the people had reſerved vaſt hoards, which they afterwards produced, when commerce took a briſker turn.

Upon Richard's return from his captivity, he held a parliament at Nottingham; whither William king of Scotland came, and demanded the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, and Lancaſter, as his predeceſſors had enjoyed the ſame. Richard put him off for the preſent with fair words, yet by advice of his council he granted William, by charter, the following honours and benefits for him and his ſucceſſors, viz. "That whenever a king of Scotland was to be ſummoned to the court of England, to do homage for the lands he held in England, he ſhould be, at the river Tweed, received by the biſhop of Durham, and the ſheriff of Northumberland, and they ſhould conduct him to the river Tees, where the archbiſhop and ſheriff of York ſhould receive him; and ſo in like ſort the biſhop, and ſheriffs of the other ſhires, till he arrived at court. On his journey he had 100 ſhillings (15 l. of our money) per day, allowed him for charges. At court thirty ſhillings per day; twelve waſtels, and twelve ſimnels of the king's, (two ſorts of fine bread in uſe then) four quarts of the king's beſt wine; ſix quarts of ordinary wine; two pound weight of pepper; and four pound weight of cinnamon; four wax lights; forty great long perches of the king's beſt candles; and twenty-four of the ordinary ones. And on his return he was to be conducted as before, with the ſame allowances."

Whilſt the Scottiſh kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their intereſt, once generally in every king's reign, to perform the ſaid homage; but when they were deprived of their ſaid lands, they paid no more homage.

Richard, upon his return, found his dominions in great diſorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom he however pardoned; and by the invaſions of the French, whom he repelled, but was ſlain in beſieging the caſtle of Chalons, in the year 1199, the 42d of his age and 10th of his reign. Some woollen broad-cloths appear to have been made in England at this time. And to thoſe who would mark the progreſs of the Engliſh conſtitution, it may be proper to obſerve, that in this reign, we meet with the firſt inſtance of the people's ſtruggling for privileges, as a diſtinct body from the barons and clergy. This was an inſurrection of the Londoners, headed by one William Fitzoſborn, to oppoſe an injudicious and oppreſſive tax, the burden of which was to fall entirely on the poor. Fitzoſborn is repreſented as a man brave and enterprizing, but being hard preſſed he took refuge in a church from whence he was dragged to the gallows, and hung in chains, with nine of his accomplices. Theſe perſons may be conſidered as the firſt victims to that untameable ſpirit, which ever ſince has actuated the commons of England in ſupport of their privileges, and prompted them to the rights of humanity.

The reign of his brother John, who ſucceeded him, is infamous in the Engliſh hiſtory. He is ſaid to have put to death Arthur, the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Conſtance, complained to Philip, the king

of France, who, upon John's non-appearance at his court, as a vaſſal, deprived him of Normandy. John notwithſtanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Iriſh, gave many proofs of perſonal valour, but became at laſt ſo apprehenſive of a French invaſion, that he rendered himſelf a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons reſented his meanneſs by taking arms, but he repeated his ſhameful ſubmiſſions to the pope, and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at laſt brought ſo low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to ſign the great deed, ſo well known by the name of Magna Charta. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of Engliſh liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of thoſe immunities which the barons and their followers had poſſeſſed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charter of Henry I. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better ſecured; this charter by various ſubſequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every Engliſh ſubject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgeſſes. John had ſcarce ſigned it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope, and the barons being apprehenſive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance, but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refuſed to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 49th year of his reign, juſt as he had a glympſe of reſuming his authority. Without diſputing what hiſtorians have ſaid of his arbitrary, inconſtant, and cruel diſpoſition, it is evident, from the ſame relations, that he had great provocations from the clergy and the barons, who in their turns attempted to annihilate the regal prerogative. It is undeniable, at the ſame time, that under John the commons of England laid the foundation of all the wealth and privileges they now enjoy; and the commerce of England received a moſt ſurpriſing encreaſe. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he eſtabliſhed, and endowed all over his kingdom. The city of London owes many of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuſe a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their ſheriffs and common-council annually, as at preſent; and it was under him that the ſtone bridge, as it ſtood ſome years ago, was erected acroſs the Thames at London.

England was in a deplorable ſituation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's ſon, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was choſen his guardian; and the Pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated, and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died in 1219, and the regency devolved upon the biſhop of Wincheſter. The French king all this time kept poſſeſſion of Normandy; but at home the pope was now become king of England, and ſent no fewer than 300 of his rapacious clergy at one time to take poſſeſſion of its beſt benefices, and to load the people with taxes. This evil was encreaſed, by Henry marrying the daughter of the king of Provence, a needy prince, whoſe poor relations engroſſed the beſt eſtates and places in the kingdom. The king was of a ſoft, pliable diſpoſition, and had been perſuaded to violate the Great Charter. An aſſociation of the barons

barons was formed againſt him and his government, and a civil war breaking out, Henry ſeemed to be abandoned by all but his Gaſcons, and foreign mercenaries. His profuſion brought him into inexpreſſible difficulties, and the famous Stephen Montfort being choſen general of the aſſociation, the king and his two ſons were defeated, and taken priſoners, at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort, and the earl of Glouceſter, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldeſt ſon, obtained his liberty, and aſſembling as many as he could of his father's ſubjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Everſham, and killed Montfort. The repreſentatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgeſſes, formed now part of the Engliſh legiſlature, in a ſeparate houſe, and this gave the firſt blow to feudal tenures in England, but hiſtorians are not agreed in what manner the commons, before this time, formed any part of the Engliſh parliaments, or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a cruſade, Henry, during his abſence, died in 1272, the 64th year of his age and 56th of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious. During his reign, the principal cuſtoms aroſe from the importation of French and Rheniſh wines, the Engliſh being as yet ſtrangers to thoſe of Spain, Portugal and Italy. Intereſt had in that age mounted to an enormous height, as might be expected from the barbariſm of the times, and mens ignorance of commerce, which was ſtill very low, though it ſeems rather to have encreaſed ſince the conqueſt. There are inſtances of 50l. per cent. paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithſtanding the grievous oppreſſions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255, Henry made a freſh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them, if they refuſed compliance. They now loſt all patience, and deſired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom. But the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppreſſion you complain of? I am myſelf a beggar; I am deſpoiled; I am ſtripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had ſaid 300,000, I ſhould not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my ſon, prince Edward, 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing; and I muſt have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew of Briſtol: and on his refuſal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he ſhould conſent. The Jew loſt ſeven teeth, and then paid the ſum required of him.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite*, to his coronation dinner, which conſiſted (that the reader may have ſome idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats; (ſee Rymer's Fœdera).

Edward was a brave and a politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, intereſts, and conſtitution of his kingdom, his regulations and reformations of his laws, have juſtly given him the title of the Engliſh Juſtinian. He paſſed the famous mortmain act, whereby all perſons "were reſtrained from giving, by will or *otherwiſe*, their eſtates to thoſe *ſo called*, religious purpoſes, and the ſocieties that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the cinque-ports, which, though now very inconſiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he went beyond ſea, with fifty-ſeven ſhips,

each having twenty armed ſoldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own coſts for the ſpace of fifteen days. He reduced the Welſh to pay him tribute, and annexed its principality to his crown, and was the firſt who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldeſt ſon. Though he encouraged foreigners to trade with England, yet the aggregate body of every particular nation reſiding here, became anſwerable for the miſdemeanors of every individual perſon of their number. He regulated the forms of parliament, and their manner of giving aids towards the nation's defence, as they now ſtand, with very little variation. Perceiving that the indolence of his ſubjects rendered them a prey to the Jews, who were the great uſurers and money dealers of the times, he expelled them out of England, and ſeized all their immoveable eſtates. I have in the article of Scotland mentioned the unjuſtifiable manner in which he aboliſhed the independency of that kingdom; but, on the other hand, it muſt be acknowledged that he held the balance of power in Europe, and employed the vaſt ſums he raiſed from his ſubjects, for the aggrandizement of his crown and people. He had frequent wars abroad, eſpecially with France, in which he was not very ſucceſsful, and would willingly have abridged the power of the barons, and great nobility, had they not been ſo ſtrong.

His vaſt connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his ſubjects, particularly by the introduction of reading glaſſes and ſpectacles, though they are ſaid to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon, whom I have already mentioned. Windmills were erected in England, about the ſame time, and the regulation of gold and ſilver workmanſhip was aſcertained by an aſſay, and mark of the goldſmiths company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himſelf and the Engliſh, by draining them of their wealth, and it is thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, eſpecially upon the affairs of Scotland, and he died in 1307, the ſixty-ninth year of his age and 35th of his reign, while he was upon a freſh expedition to exterminate that people.

His ſon and ſucceſſor Edward II. ſhewed early diſpoſitions for encouraging favourites, but Gaveſton, his chief minion, being baniſhed by his father Edward, he mounted the throne, with vaſt advantages, both political and perſonal, all which he ſoon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveſton, and loaded him with honours, and married Iſabella, daughter to the French king, who reſtored to him part of the territories, which Edward I. had loſt in France. The knights templars were ſuppreſſed in his reign, and the barons obliged him once more to baniſh his favourite, and to confirm the great charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling, near to which, Bannockburn, Edward in perſon received the greateſt defeat that England ever ſuffered, in 1314. Gaveſton being beheaded by the barons, Edward fixed upon young Hugh Spencer for his favourite, but he was baniſhed together with his father, an aged nobleman of great honour and courage. His queen, a furious ambitious woman, perſuaded her huſband to recal the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's ſtandard, and after defeating them, reſtored him to the exerciſe of all his prerogatives. A cruel uſe was made of thoſe ſucceſſes, and many noble patriots, with their eſtates, fell victims to the queen's revenge, but at laſt ſhe became enamoured with

Roger

Roger Mortimer, who was her priſoner, and had been one of the moſt active of the antiroyaliſt lords. A breach between her and the Spencers ſoon followed, and going over to France with her lover, ſhe found means to form ſuch a party in England, that returning with ſome French troops, ſhe put the eldeſt Spencer to an ignominious death, made her huſband priſoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown, in favour of his ſon Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt, and he was moſt barbarouſly murdured in Berkeley-caſtle, by ruffians, ſuppoſed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

The fate of Edward II. was in ſome meaſure as unjuſt as it was cruel. His chief misfortune lay in not being a match for Robert Bruce, king of Scotland, the greateſt military and political genius of his age, by which the Engliſh loſt that kingdom. It cannot, at the ſame time, be denied, that he was too much engroſſed by favourites, who led him into ſanguinary meaſures. In other reſpects he was a far better friend than his father had been to public liberty. He even voluntarily limited his own prerogative, in a parliament held at London in 1324, and he ſecured the tenants of great barons, from being oppreſſed by their lords. None of his predeceſſors equalled him in his encouragement of commerce, and he protected his trading ſubjects with great ſpirit againſt the Hanſeatic league, and the neighbouring powers. Upon an average, the difference of living then and now ſeems to be nearly as 5 or 6 is to 1, always remembering that their money contained thrice as much ſilver as our money or coin of the ſame denomination does. Thus, for example, if a gooſe then coſt 2d. ½, that is 7d. ½ of our money, or according to the proportion of 6 to 1, it would now coſt 3s. 9d.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer, and they endeavoured to keep poſſeſſion of their power, by executing many popular meaſures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland. Edward, young as he was, was ſoon ſenſible of their deſigns. He ſurpriſed them in perſon at the head of a few choſen friends in the caſtle of Nottingham. Mortimer was ignominiouſly put to a public death, and the queen herſelf was ſhut up in confinement. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David, king of Scotland, who had married his ſiſter, and who was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary king of Scotland, and general. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without iſſue) who had ſucceeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended cut off all female ſucceſſion to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir male by ſucceſſion, but he was oppoſed by Edward, as being the ſon of Iſabella, who was ſiſter to the three laſt mentioned kings of France, and firſt in the female ſucceſſion. The former was preferred, but the caſe being doubtful, Edward purſued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occaſion, the vaſt difference between the feudal conſtitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no ſubordination. They and their men were equally undiſciplined, and diſobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The Engliſh freemen, on the other hand, having now vaſt property to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a

feudal law, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by providing themſelves with proper armour, and ſubmitting to military exerciſes, and proper ſubordination in the field. The war on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued ſcene of ſucceſs and victory. At Creſſy, in 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but 16 years of age (his father being no more than 34) though the Engliſh did not exceed 30,000. The loſs of the French far exceeded the number of the Engliſh army, whoſe loſs conſiſted of no more than three knights, and one eſquire, and about 50 private men. The battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales, and the French king John, but with ſuperior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite ſon Philip taken priſoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle, was double that of all the Engliſh army; but the modeſty and politeneſs with which the prince treated his royal priſoners, formed the brighteſt wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, ſhe had the good fortune to take priſoner David, king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England, about ſix weeks after the battle of Creſſy was fought. Thus Edward, on his return, had the glory to ſee two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ranſomed, but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is ſaid to have been frightened by a dreadful ſtorm, his fortunes declined. He had reſigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he ſunk in the eſteem of his ſubjects at home, on account of his attachment to his miſtreſs, one Alice Piers. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was ſeized with a conſumptive diſorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long ſurvive him, for he died diſpirited, and obſcure, at Shene, in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age and 51ſt of his reign.

No prince ever underſtood the balance and intereſts of Europe better than Edward did. Having ſet his heart on the conqueſt of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands for protection, and ſecurity to their liberties and properties, but he thereby exhauſted his regal dominions; neither was his ſucceſſor, when he mounted the throne, ſo powerful a prince as he was, in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of eſtabliſhing the woollen manufacture among the Engliſh, who, till his time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign, ſeems to have been much the ſame as in the late reign, and few of the Engliſh ſhips, even of war, exceeded 40 or 50 tons. But notwithſtanding the vaſt encreaſe of property in England, villainage ſtill continued in the royal, epiſcopal, and baronial manors. Hiſtorians are not agreed, whether Edward made uſe of artillery, in his firſt invaſion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent caſtle of Windſor, was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the people in that age. Inſtead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he aſſeſſed every county in England to ſend him ſo many maſons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army.

army. Soldiers were enliſted only for a ſhort time; they lived idle all the reſt of the year, and commonly all the reſt of their lives; one ſucceſsful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ranſom of priſoners, was ſuppoſed to be a ſmall fortune to a man: which was a great allurement to enter into the ſervice. The wages of a maſter carpenter was limited through the whole year to three-pence a day, a common carpenter to two-pence, money of that age. John Wickliffe, a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to ſpread the doctrines of reformation by his diſcourſes, ſermons, and writings; and he made many diſciples of all ranks and ſtations. He ſeems to have been a man of parts and learning; and has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe, who publickly called in queſtion thoſe doctrines, which had univerſally paſſed for certain and undiſputed, during ſo many ages.

The doctrines of Wickliffe, being derived from his ſearch into the ſcriptures, and into eccleſiaſtical antiquity, were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the ſixteenth century. But though the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reſerved for a more free and enquiring period, that gave the finiſhing blow to Romiſh ſuperſtition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. His diſciples were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. was no more than eleven years of age, when he mounted the throne. The Engliſh arms were then unſucceſsful, both in France and Scotland. The doctrines of Wickliffe had taken root under John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, the king's uncle, and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in ſo flouriſhing a ſtate, that corn, and other victuals, were ſuffered to be tranſported, and the Engliſh had fallen upon a way of manufacturing for exportation, likewiſe their leather, horns, and other native commodities, and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they ſeem from records to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain, were of prejudice to England, and ſo many men were employed in unſucceſsful wars, that the commons of England, like powder receiving a ſpark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a prieſt, Wat Tyler, and others, the ſcum of the people. Their profeſt principles were thoſe of levelling, but it ſoon appeared, that their real intention was to have murdered the king, and ſeized upon the government.

Richard was not then above ſixteen, but he acted with great ſpirit and wiſdom. He faced the ſtorm of the inſurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the arch traitor, to death, in the midſt of his rabble. This, with the ſeaſonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the inſurrection for that time, but it broke out with the moſt bloody effects in other parts of England; and though it was ſuppreſſed by making many examples of ſeverity and juſtice among the inſurgents, yet the common people never after that loſt ſight of their own importance, till by degrees they obtained thoſe privileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the ſuppreſſion of thoſe inſurgents, have eſtabliſhed the tranquillity of his dominions on a ſure foundation, but he delivered himſelf up to worthleſs favourites, particularly Sir Michael de la Pole, whom he created lord chancellor,

Judge Treſilian, and above all, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people, and Richard ſtooped to the moſt ignoble meaſures to ſave them; but he found that it was not in his power. They were attainted and condemned to ſuffer as traitors; but Pole, and the duke of Ireland eſcaped abroad, where they died in obſcurity. Richard aſſociated to himſelf a new ſet of favourites. His people, and great lords, again took arms, and being headed by the duke of Glouceſter, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into their terms; but being inſincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more deſpotic than any king of England ever had been, when he loſt his crown and life by a ſudden cataſtrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, and the duke of Norfolk, and Richard baniſhed them both, with particular marks of injuſtice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaſter by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a ſtrong party was formed in England, who offered the duke of Lancaſter the crown. He landed at Ravenſpur in Yorkſhire, and was ſoon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them Engliſh. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refuſing to fight, he was made priſoner, with no more than twenty attendants, and being carried to London, he was depoſed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of miſconduct, and ſoon after he was ſtarved to death in priſon, in the year 1399, the 34th of his age, and the 23d of his reign.

Though the nobility of England were poſſeſſed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonſtrate boldly in parliament againſt the uſury, which was but too much practiſed in England, and other abuſes of both clergy and laity, and the deſtruction of the feudal powers ſoon followed.

Henry the fourth, * ſon of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. being ſettled in the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III's family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect of his title would render him dependent upon them. At firſt ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt him among his great men, but he cruſhed them by his activity and ſteadineſs, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown powers. This was underſtood by the Piercy family, the greateſt in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of ſome Scotch priſoners, whom they had taken in battle, and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his ſon, the famous Henry Piercy, ſurnamed the Hotſpur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune Henry ſuppreſſed

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaſter ſtepped forth, and having croſſed himſelf on his forehead, and on his breaſt, and called upon the name of Chriſt, he pronounced theſe words, which I ſhall give in the original language, becauſe of their ſingularity.

In the name of Fadher, Son, and Holy Gloſt, I Henry of Lancaſter, challenge this reame of Yngelande, and the croun, with all the membres, and the appurtenances; als I that am deſcendit by right line of the blode (meaning a claim in right of his mother) *coming fra the gude king Henry therde, and throge that right that God of his grace hath ſent me, with helpe of kyn, and of my frendes, to recover it; the which reame was in poynt to be undone by defaut of governance, and ondoying of the gude lawes.*

preſſed the inſurrections of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent conceſſions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at laſt conquered all oppoſition, while, to ſalve the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body, lawfully begotten, thereby ſhutting out all female ſucceſſion. The young duke of Rothſay, heir to the crown of Scotland, (afterwards James I. of that kingdom) falling a priſoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of infinite ſervice to his government; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his ſon, and ſucceſſor, the prince of Wales, diſengage himſelf from many youthful follies, which had till then diſgraced his conduct.

The Engliſh marine was now ſo greatly encreaſed, that we find an Engliſh veſſel of 200 tons, in the Baltic, and many other ſhips of equal burden, carrying on an immenſe trade all over Europe, but with the Hanſe towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the firſt prince who gave the different orders in parliament, eſpecially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little ſurprizing, that learning was at this time at a much lower paſs in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myſelf, N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me; or, As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt I have ſubſcribed."

The balance of trade with foreign parts was againſt England, at the acceſſion of Henry V. in 1413, ſo greatly had luxury encreaſed. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliff, were exceſſively numerous, and had choſen Sir John Oldcaſtle for their head, but Henry diſperſed them, and executed their leader. Henry next turned his eyes towards France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a reſtitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been raviſhed from England in the preceding reigns; alſo the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ranſom ſince the reign of Edward III. and availing himſelf of the diſtracted ſtate of that kingdom, he invaded it, where he firſt took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled thoſe of Creſſy and Poictiers in glory to the Engliſh, but exceeded them in its conſequences, on account of the vaſt number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made ſuch alliances, and divided the French among themſelves ſo effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whoſe huſband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princeſs Catherine, to diſinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France, during her huſband's life, and him and his iſſue ſucceſſors to the French monarchy, which muſt at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (tho' their king ſtill continued Henry's captive) furniſhed the Dauphin with vaſt ſupplies, and preſerved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proſcribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might cruſh the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been ſucceſsful, had he not died of a pleuritic diſorder, in 1422, the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

Henry V's vaſt ſucceſſes in France revived the trade of England, and at the ſame time encreaſed and eſtabliſhed the privileges and liberties of the Engliſh commonalty. As he died when he was only 34 years of age, it is hard to ſay, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then greatly diſtracted by the diviſions among its princes: but whether this would have been of ſervice or prejudice to the growing liberties of his Engliſh ſubjects we cannot determine.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign it appears that they amounted only to 55,714l. a year, which is nearly the ſame with the revenues in Henry III's time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the courſe of 200 years. The ordinary expences of the government amounted to 52,507l. ſo that the king had of ſurplus only 3,207l. for the ſupport of his houſhold, for his wardrobe, for the expence of embaſſies, and other articles. This ſum was nowiſe ſufficient even in time of peace; and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miſerable ſhifts: he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels, and ſometimes the crown itſelf; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to ſtop in the midſt of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I mention theſe particulars, that the reader may judge of the ſimplicity and temperance of our predeceſſors three centuries ago, when the expences of the greateſt king in Europe did not much exceed the penſion of a ſuperannuated courtier of the preſent age.

It required a prince equally able as Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaſter houſe to the throne of England. Henry VI. ſurnamed of Windſor, was no more than nine months old, when in conſequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France, as well as of England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Glouceſter, both of them princes of great accompliſhments, virtues and courage, but unable to preſerve their brother's conqueſts. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the perſon of his ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at laſt laid ſiege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conqueſt of France. The ſiege was raiſed by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in hiſtory, being born of the loweſt extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and ſometimes a helper in ſtables at public inns. She muſt, notwithſtanding, have poſſeſſed an amazing fund of ſagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of glorious actions, and placing the crown upon her ſovereign's head, ſhe was accidentally taken priſoner by the Engliſh, who burnt her alive for being a witch and a heretic.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the Engliſh, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the Engliſh intereſt in France, and the loſs of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithſtanding the amazing courage of Talbot, the firſt earl of Shrewſbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its diſunion at home. The duke of Glouceſter loſt his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman

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of a high ſpirit, but an implacable diſpoſition; while the cardinal of Wincheſter, who was the richeſt ſubject in England, if not in Europe, preſided at the head of the treaſury, and by his avarice ruined the intereſt of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He was deſcended by the mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was deſcended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngeſt ſon, and he affected to keep up the diſtinction of a white roſe, that of the houſe of Lancaſter being red. It is certain he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he loſt no opportunity of forming a party to aſſert his right, but acted at firſt with the moſt profound diſſimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a profeſt enemy to the duke of York, but being impeached in parliament, he was baniſhed for five years, and had his head ſtruck off on board a ſhip by a common ſailor. This was followed by an inſurrection of 20,000 Kentiſhmen, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who ſent to the court a liſt of grievances, but was ſuppreſſed by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen ſeemed to be perfectly ſecure againſt the duke of York. The inglorious management of the Engliſh affairs in France befriended him, and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a ſtrong party of the nobility his friends, but being conſidered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he profeſt the moſt profound reverence to Henry.

The perſons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Saliſbury, and his ſon the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greateſt land eſtate of any ſubject in England, and his vaſt abilities, joined to ſome virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and ſon were ſecretly on the ſide of York; and during a fit of illneſs of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both ſides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity, aſſembling an army, the royaliſts were defeated in the firſt battle of St. Alban's, and the king himſelf was taken priſoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen reſumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakneſs became every day more viſible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the maſk, and in 1459, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the King-maker. A parliament on this being aſſembled, it was enacted, that Henry ſhould poſſeſs the throne for life, but that the duke of York ſhould ſucceed him, to the excluſion of all Henry's iſſue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromiſe. She retreated northwards, and the king being ſtill a priſoner, ſhe pleaded his cauſe ſo well, that aſſembling a freſh army, ſhe fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and ſlain in 1460. He left behind him three ſons, Edward, duke of York, afterwards Edward IV. George, duke of Clarence, and Richard, duke of Glouceſter, afterwards Richard III.

It is pretty extraordinary, that though the duke of York, and his party, openly aſſerted his claim to the crown, they ſtill profeſſed allegiance to Henry; but the young duke of York prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained ſeveral victories over the royaliſts.

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The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the ſecond battle of St. Alban's, ſhe delivered her huſband; but the diſorders committed by her northern troops, diſguſted the Londoners ſo much, that ſhe durſt not enter London, where the duke of York was received amidſt the acclamations of the people, and proclaimed king, anno 1471, under the name of Edward IV. while the queen and her huſband were obliged to retreat northwards. She ſoon raiſed another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the moſt bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both ſides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her huſband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

It may be proper to obſerve, that this civil war was carried on with greater animoſity, than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as bloodthirſty as her opponents, and when priſoners of either ſide were made, their deaths, eſpecially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the conceſſions ſhe made to the Scots, ſoon raiſed a freſh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at laſt her huſband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried priſoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, though he had ſome time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's ſiſter in marriage, in which embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl, deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England, inflamed with rage and indignation; and from being Edward's beſt friend became his moſt formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made priſoner, but eſcaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king Lewis XI. declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly eſcaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York, but being received into the capital, he reſumed the exerciſe of royal authority, made king Henry once more his priſoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after he defeated a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made queen Margaret priſoner, together with her ſon, prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Glouceſter, murdered in cold blood, as he is ſaid (but with no great ſhew of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a priſoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471. Edward being now ſettled on the throne, was guilty of the utmoſt cruelty to all the Lancaſtrian party, whom he put to death, whenever he could find them, ſo that they were threatened with utter extermination.

The great object of his vengeance was Henry, earl of Richmond. He was deſcended from John Beaufort, the eldeſt ſon of the earl of Somerſet, who was the eldeſt ſon of John of Gaunt, by his laſt wife Catherine Swineford, but born in adultery, during her huſband's life-time. This diſability, however, was afterwards removed, both by the pope and by the parliament, and the deſcendants of John of Gaunt, by that lady, as far

far as could be done, were declared legitimate. The laſt lord, John, duke of Somerſet, left a daughter, Margaret, who was married to Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, and their ſon was Henry, earl of Richmond (afterwards Henry VII.) who, at the time I treat of, lived in France to ſecure himſelf from the cruelty of Edward. The reader may ſee, from the detail of this important genealogy, that the young earl of Richmond had not the ſmalleſt claim in blood (even ſuppoſing the illegitimacy of his anceſtors had been removed) to the crown of England.

The kingdom of England was, in 1474, in a deplorable ſituation. The king was immerſed in expenſive and criminal luxuries, in which he was imitated by his great men, who, to ſupport their extravagancies, became penſioners to the French king. The parliament ſeemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The beſt blood in England was ſhed on ſcaffolds, and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealouſy. Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſupply the vaſt expence of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, and ſometimes to treat, with France, but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-ſecond of his age.

Notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England encreaſed during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of, by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve to themſelves the benefit of being the ſole carriers of their own merchandize, but foreign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that purpoſe. The invention of printing, which was imported into England by William Caxton, and received ſome countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign, but learning in general was then in a poor ſtate in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and ſeems to have been the firſt Engliſh nobleman, who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton, are moſtly re-tranſlations or compilations from the French, or Monkiſh Latin; but it muſt be acknowledged, at the ſame time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progreſs among the Engliſh, than it did in any other European nation.

Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had exerciſed her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obſcure relations. Her eldeſt ſon Edward V. was about 13, and his uncle, the duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to baſtardize her iſſue, by act of parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the ſame time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and, at laſt, accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners, having firſt put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether young Edward and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The moſt probable opinion is, that they were clandeſtinely ſent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger ſurvived, and was the ſame who was afterwards well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the Engliſh were prepoſſeſſed ſo ſtrongly againſt Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who ſtill remained in France, carried on a ſecret correſpondence with the remains of Edward IV's friends, and by offering

to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was encouraged to invade England, at the head of about 2,000 foreign troops, but they were ſoon joined by 7,000 Engliſh and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, enſued at Boſworth-field, in which Richard, after diſplaying moſt aſtoniſhing acts of perſonal valour, was killed, having been firſt abandoned by a main diviſion of his army, under lord Stanley, and his brother, in the year 1485.

There can ſcarcely be a doubt, that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by hiſtorians. He was exemplary in his diſtributive juſtice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whoſe oppreſſions he aboliſhed, and was a father to the common people. He founded the ſociety of heralds, an inſtitution, which, in his time, was found neceſſary to prevent diſputes among great families. During his reign, ſhort as it was, we have repeated inſtances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures of all kinds, and for preventing their being imported into England, no fewer than 72 different kinds being prohibited importation by one act. He was the firſt Engliſh king who appointed a conſul for the ſuperintendency of Engliſh commerce abroad, one Strozzi being nominated for Piſa, with an income of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Engliſhmen imported to or exported from thence. I ſhall not enter into the ſubject of the concern he had in the ſuppoſed murder of his two nephews, but only obſerve, that the temporizing parliament, by baſtardizing them, cut them off from the ſucceſſion to the crown.

Though the ſame act of baſtardy affected the daughters, as well as the ſons of the late king, yet no diſputes were raiſed upon the legitimacy of the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaſter, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houſes, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houſes of York and Lancaſter. Henry, however, reſted his right upon conqueſt, and ſeemed to pay no regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the moſt ſagacious monarch that ever had reigned in England; but, at the ſame time, the moſt jealous of his power, for he ſhut up the earl of Warwick, ſon to the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. a cloſe priſoner in the Tower, though he was but a boy, and though nothing was alledged againſt him but his propinquity to the houſe of York. He was the firſt who inſtituted that guard called Yeomen, which ſtill ſubſiſts, and in imitation of his predeceſſor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges aſſumed by the barons, in aboliſhing liveries, and retainers, by which every malefactor could ſhelter himſelf from the law, by aſſuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his perſon. Some rebellions happened in the beginning of his reign, but they were eaſily ſuppreſſed, as was the impoſture of Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the impriſoned earl of Warwick. The deſpotic court of ſtar-chamber, owed its original to Henry, but, at the ſame time, it muſt be acknowledged, that he paſſed many acts, eſpecially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his ſubjects. They expreſſed their gratitude, by the great ſupplies and benevolences they afforded him, and as a finiſhing ſtroke to the feudal tenures, an act paſſed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed intereſt were at liberty to ſell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

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This, if we regard its conſequences, is perhaps the moſt important act that ever paſſed in an Engliſh parliament, tho' its tendency ſeems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the encreaſe of trade, and the diſcovery of America, had broken with irreſiſtible force into England, and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the eſtates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges, and thus the baronial powers were ſoon extinguiſhed in England.

Henry, after encountering and ſurmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the poſſeſſion of his throne, by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon to Edward IV. and was acknowleged as ſuch by the ducheſs of Burgundy, Edward's ſiſter. We ſhall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon, but it is certain that many of the Engliſh, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public ſatisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland diſmiſſed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldeſt daughter, yet by the kind manner in which he entertained and diſmiſſed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, eſpecially as he refuſed to deliver up his perſon, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was ſhut up in the tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to eſcape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. It is ſaid, that Perkin made a confeſſion of his impoſtures before his death, but if he did, it might have been extorted from him, either upon the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture. In 1499, Henry's eldeſt ſon, Arthur, prince of Wales, was married to the princeſs Catherine, of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying ſoon after, ſuch was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, that he conſented to her being married again to his ſecond ſon, afterwards Henry VIII. on pretence that the firſt match had not been conſummated. Soon after, Henry's eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Margaret, was ſent with a moſt magnificent train to Scotland, where ſhe was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was poſſeſſed of 1,800,000 l. ſterling, which is equivalent to five millions at preſent, ſo that he may be ſuppoſed to have been maſter of more ready money than all the kings in Europe beſides poſſeſſed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked.

I have already mentioned the vaſt alteration which happened in the conſtitution of England, during Henry the VII's reign. His exceſſive love of money was the probable reaſon why he did not become maſter of the Weſt-Indies, he having the firſt offer of the diſcovery from Columbus, whoſe propoſals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he ſet out upon the diſcovery of a new world, in the year 1492, which he effected after a paſſage of 33 days, and took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry however made amends by encouraging Cabot, who diſcovered the main land of North America, in 1498, and we may obſerve, to the praiſe of this king, that ſometimes, in order to promote commerce,

he lent to merchants ſums of money, without intereſt, when he knew, that their ſtock was not ſufficient for thoſe enterprizes, which they had in view.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the acceſſion of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy, and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exerciſe of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe, but it is certain, that he neglected theſe advantages in commerce, with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining he could not ſtand in need of a ſupply, he did not improve Cabot's diſcoveries, and he ſuffered the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to be engroſſed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conqueſt of all France. Theſe projects, and his eſtabliſhing what is properly called a navy royal, for the permanent defence of the nation (a moſt excellent meaſure) led him into incredible expences. He was on all occaſions the dupe of the emperor Maximilian, the pooreſt prince in Europe, and early in his reign he gave himſelf almoſt entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolſey. While involved in a war with France, his lieutenant, the earl of Surry, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland, who had invaded England, and he became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy, but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between thoſe princes, was directed by Wolſey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the intereſt of Charles, but finding himſelf twice deceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare himſelf for Francis, who had been taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expences, till at laſt he was forced to lay vaſt burdens upon his ſubjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes, and the Romiſh church. He wrote a book againſt Luther, about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his ſucceſſors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have ſome ſcruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I ſhall not ſay, how far on this occaſion he might be influenced by the charms of the famous Anne Bullen, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this proceſs, ruined Wolſey, who died of heart-break, after being ſtript of his immenſe power and poſſeſſions; and had introduced into the king's favour Cranmer, who was afterwards archbiſhop of Canterbury.

A perplexing, though nice conjuncture of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at laſt to throw off all relation to or dependence upon the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation, in which, however, many of the Romiſh errors and ſuperſtitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty meaſure, had it not been for his deſpotic diſpoſition, which broke out on every occaſion. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion of his queen's inconſtancy, and after a ſham trial, he cut off her head, and put to death ſome of her neareſt relations, and he was declared arbitrary by repeated acts of parliament, which aſſembled only as a board to exe-

cute

cute his pleaſures. The diſſolution of the religious houſes, and the immenſe wealth that came to Henry, by ſeizing all the eccleſiaſtical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full ſcope to his ſanguinary diſpoſition, ſo that the beſt and moſt innocent blood of England was daily ſhed on ſcaffolds, and few days paſſed that were not marked with ſome illuſtrious victim of his tyranny. Among others was the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, deſcended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to the cardinal Pole, the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correſpondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves. He diſliked her ſo much, that he ſcarce bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he ſuffered her to reſide in England, on a penſion of 3000 l. a year. His fifth wife was Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His laſt wife was queen Catherine Par, in whoſe poſſeſſion he died, after narrowly eſcaping being brought to the ſtake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty encreaſed with his years, and was now exerciſed promiſcuouſly on Proteſtants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death without a crime being proved againſt him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſt have ſuffered next day, had he not been ſaved by Henry's own death, in the year 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

The ſtate of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the help of printing, too well known to be enlarged upon here. His attention to the naval ſecurity of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the deſpotic power he was poſſeſſed off, in many reſpects, for the glory and intereſt of his ſubjects. Without enquiring into his religious motives, it muſt be candidly confeſſed, that had the reformation gone through all the forms preſcribed by the laws, and the courts of juſtice, it probably never could have taken place, or at leaſt not for many years; and whatever Henry's perſonal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby reſcuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the preſent greatneſs of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a penſion to Eraſmus, which is another name for learning itſelf. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houſes began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a conſtant and generous friend to Cranmer: and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimſical than ſettled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the inſtruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in Engliſh. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after ſome diſputes were over, the regency was ſettled in the perſon of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy

enemy to the ſee of Rome. Much of the popiſh leaven, however, ſtill remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. The protector marched with an army into Scotland, to force that people to give their young queen Mary, only child of James V. in marriage to Edward, with a view to unite the two kingdoms, a meaſure which the late king had recommended with his dying breath to his executors. The protector defeated the Scots at Pinkey, but the match never took place: and the factions now forming againſt the protector, obliged him to return with his army to England. His own brother, who had married the queen dowager, was at the head of his enemies, and ſhe dying, he made his addreſſes to the princeſs Elizabeth, afterwards queen. This gave a handle to the protector to bring his brother, who was lord admiral, to the block, where he loſt his head.

The reader is to obſerve in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public diſturbances. The common people, during the reign of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the vaſt relief they had from abbeys and religious houſes, and being ejected from their ſmall corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often ſuppreſſed by the government; and ſeveral of theſe inſurrections were cruſhed in this reign. A war, which was not very happily managed, broke out with Scotland; and the protector, who was, upon the whole, a weak, but conſcientious man, was ſo intent upon religion, that he was firſt driven from the helm of ſtate, and then loſt his head upon a ſcaffold, by a faction formed equally of papiſts and pretended proteſtants. Dudley, who was created duke of Northumberland, then took the lead in the government, and drove Edward, who, though young, meant extremely well, and was a ſincere proteſtant, into many impolitic acts, ſo that upon the whole England never made a poorer figure than it did in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and other, ſome of them foreign, divines. In ſome caſes, particularly with regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſight of that moderation, which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recommended; and ſome cruel ſanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuſes him from blame, and his charitable endowments, which ſtill exiſt and flouriſh, ſhew the goodneſs of his heart. He died of a deep conſumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconſtitutional will, for he ſet aſide his ſiſter Mary from the ſucceſſion, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the ducheſs of Suffolk, youngeſt ſiſter to Henry VIII. This lady, though ſhe had ſcarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the Engliſh nation recognized the claim of the princeſs Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head, and that of her huſband lord Guilford Dudley, ſon to the duke of Northumberland, who ſuffered in the ſame manner.

Mary being thus ſettled on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection under Wyat, and proceeded like a female fury to re-eſtabliſh popery, which ſhe did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from baniſhment, made him the principal inſtrument of her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of perſecution, in which archbiſhop Cranmer, the biſhops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illuſtrious confeſſors of the Engliſh reformed

formed church, were conſumed; not to mention a vaſt number of other ſacrifices of both ſexes, and all ranks, that ſuffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner, biſhop of London, and Gardiner biſhop of Winchester, were, under Pole, the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had ſhe lived, ſhe would have endeavoured to exterminate all her proteſtant ſubjects.

Mary was married to Philip II. king of Spain, who, like herſelf, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that by the marriage articles proviſion was made for the independency of the Engliſh crown. By the aſſiſtance of troops, which ſhe furniſhed to her huſband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was ſo ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the Engliſh in France. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connections with the French court, is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her perſecuting flames, (ſays a contemporary writer of credit) were burnt to aſhes, 5 biſhops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 huſbandmen, ſervants, and labourers; 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, ſpringing out of the mother's womb from the ſtake as ſhe burned, thrown again into the fire."

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Bullen, mounted the throne under the moſt diſcouraging circumſtances, both at home and abroad. Popery was the eſtabliſhed religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death, was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grand-child to Henry VII.'s eldeſt daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally ſhe had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and ſoul of the popiſh cauſe, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age, at the time of her inauguration, but her ſufferings under her bigotted ſiſter, joined to the ſuperiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy, and ſhe ſoon conquered all difficulties. Even to mention every glorious action of her reign, would far exceed my bounds, I ſhall therefore here only touch on the great lines of her government.

In matters of religion ſhe ſucceeded with ſurprizing facility, for in her firſt parliament, in 1559, the laws eſtabliſhing popery were repealed, her ſupremacy was reſtored, and an act of uniformity paſſed ſoon after. With regard to her title, ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to ſuſpend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, ſent troops and money, which ſupported the Scotch malecontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage, and her other misfortunes drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where ſhe had been often promiſed a ſafe and an honourable aſylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profeſſion of friendſhip, and that ſhe detained the unhappy priſoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a ſham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without the leaſt proof of guilt, cut off her head, an action which muſt have tarniſhed all the glories of her reign had it been a thouſand times more ſplendid than it was.

As to Elizabeth's affairs with Spain, which formed, in fact, the main buſineſs of her government, they exhibit different ſcenes of wonderful events, partly ariſing from her own maſterly conduct, partly from the ſagacity of her ſtateſmen, and partly from the intrepidity of her forces by ſea and land.

The ſame Philip who had been the huſband of her late ſiſter, upon Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, offered to marry her, but ſhe dextrouſly avoided his addreſſes; and by a train of ſkilful negociations between her court and that of France, ſhe kept the balance of Europe ſo undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at home, and to eſtabliſh an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She ſometimes ſupported the proteſtants of France; and ſhe ſometimes gave the dukes of Anjou and Alenzon the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that one or other of them ſhould be her huſband; by which ſhe kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the ſame time in ſo good humour with her government, that it ſhewed no reſentment when ſhe cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be impoſed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amuſed and baffled him in every quarter; it is well known that he made uſe of the immenſe ſums which he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to ſea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the beſt captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for abſolving Elizabeth's ſubjects from their allegiance. No reader can be ſo uninformed as to be ignorant of the conſequences, that the largeneſs of the Spaniſh ſhips proved diſadvantageous to them on the ſeas where they engaged; that the lord admiral Howard, and the brave ſea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chaſed the Spaniſh fleet for ſeveral days, and that the ſeas and tempeſts finiſhed the deſtruction which the Engliſh arms had begun, and that few of the Spaniſh ſhips recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Forbiſher, diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt this formidable armada, in which the Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for ſome time ſupported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had ſent them her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leiceſter behaved ill, yet her meaſures were ſo wiſe, that the Dutch eſtabliſhed their independency upon Spain, and then ſhe ſent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treaſures taken from the Spaniards into England.

After the death of the earl of Leiceſter, the young earl of Eſſex became Elizabeth's chief favourite, and commanded the land forces in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, in which they took and plundered the city of Cadiz in Spain, deſtroyed the ſhips in the harbour, and did other damage to the Spaniards, to the amount of twenty millions of ducats.

Elizabeth in her old age grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe undoubtedly loved the earl of Eſſex, ſhe teized him by her capriciouſneſs into the madneſs of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that ſhe had been betrayed into this ſanguinary meaſure, which occaſioned a ſinking of her ſpirits, that brought her to her grave in 1603, the 70th year of her age, and 45th of

of her reign, having previouſly named her kinſman James VI. king of Scotland, and ſon to Mary, for her ſucceſſor.

The above, as I have already hinted, form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign, and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She ſupported the proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of Auſtria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She cruſhed the papiſts in her own dominions for the ſame reaſon, and made a further reformation in the church of England, in which ſtate it has remained ever ſince. In 1600 the Engliſh Eaſt-India company received its firſt formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portugueſe (in conſequence of their having firſt diſcovered the paſſage to India by the cape of Good Hope) who at that time were ſubjects to Spain; and factories were eſtabliſhed in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

Before queen Elizabeth's reign, the kings of England had uſually recourſe to the city of Antwerp, for voluntary loans; and their credit was ſo low, that, beſides the exorbitant intereſt of 10 or 12 per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the ſecurity. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583; and that commerce was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the Grand Signior had always conceived England to be a dependant province of France. About 1590 there were in London four perſons only rated in the ſubſidy book ſo high as 400 l. In 1567 there were found on enquiry to be 4851 ſtrangers of all nations in London, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the ſucceſſes of her reign have diſguiſed it, for ſhe was far from being a friend to perſonal liberty, and ſhe was guilty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt ſacred rights of Engliſhmen. Before I cloſe this ſhort account of her reign, I am to obſerve, that through the practices of the Spaniards with the Iriſh Roman catholics, ſhe found great difficulty to keep that iſland in ſubjection, and at the time of her death her government there had gone into great diſorder.

We can ſcarce require a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of her ſucceſſor, notwithſtanding the long inveterate animoſities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being deſtitute of natural abilities for government, but he had received wrong impreſſions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the Engliſh throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconſtitutional powers that had been exerciſed by Elizabeth, and the houſe of Tudor; and while he was boaſting of an almoſt unlimited prerogative, there was not ſo much as a ſingle regiment in England to maintain his extenſive claims; a ſufficient proof that he ſincerely believed his pretenſions to be well grounded. He made no allowance for the glories of Elizabeth; which, as I have obſerved, diſguiſed her moſt arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal ſentiments which the improvement of knowledge and learning had then diffuſed through England. It is needleſs, perhaps, to point out the vaſt encreaſe of property through trade and navigation, which enabled the Engliſh at the ſame time to defend their liberties. James's firſt attempt of great conſequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the averſion of the Engliſh to that meaſure, he ſhewed no violent reſentment at the diſ-

appointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of the gun-powder treaſon *.

I have taken notice, in ſeveral preceding parts of this work, of the vaſt obligations which commerce and colonization owed to this prince; and, in fact, he laid the foundations of all the advantages which the Engliſh have reaped from either. That his pedantry was ridiculous cannot be denied; and it is certain that he had no juſt ideas of the Engliſh conſtitution and liberties. This led him into many abſurd diſputes with his parliament, and has thrown a moſt diſagreeable ſhade upon his memory. Without enquiring from what motive his love of peace proceeded, I may venture to affirm that it was productive of many bleſſings to England; and though his perpetual negociations have given riſe to much ſatire againſt his perſon and government, yet they were leſs expenſive and deſtructive to his people than any wars he could have entered into. He reſtored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, upon diſcharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; but he procured from Spain at the ſame time an acknowledgment of their independency.

James gave his daughter the princeſs Elizabeth in marriage to the elector palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and he ſoon after aſſumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abuſed for his tame behaviour after that prince had loſt his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be obſerved that he always oppoſed his ſon-in-law's aſſuming the crown of Bohemia; that had he kindled a war to reinſtate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have ſtood ſingle in the ſame, excepting the feeble and uncertain aſſiſtance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing however is more certain than that James furniſhed the elector with large ſums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raiſed a regiment of 2,200 men, under Sir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anſpach,

* This was a ſcheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament, when it was alſo expected that the queen, and prince of Wales, would be preſent. The manner of enliſting any new conſpirator was by oath, and adminiſtring the ſacrament; and this dreadful ſecret, after being religiouſly kept near 18 months, was happily diſcovered in the following manner: about ten days before the long wiſhed for meeting of parliament, a Roman catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his ſervant by an unknown hand, earneſtly adviſing him to ſhift off his attendance on parliament at that time, but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he conſidered the letter as a fooliſh attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who ſtudying the contents with more attention, began to ſuſpect ſome dangerous contrivance by gun-powder; and it was judged adviſable to inſpect all the vaults below the houſes of parliament, but the ſearch was purpoſely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a juſtice of peace was ſent with proper attendants, and before the door of the vault under the upper houſe, finding one Fawkes, who had juſt finiſhed all his preparations, he immediately ſeized him; and at the ſame time diſcovered in the vaults 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for ſetting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whoſe countenance beſpoke his ſavage diſpoſition, and who, after regretting that he had loſt the opportunity of deſtroying ſo many heretics, made a full diſcovery; and the conſpirators, who never exceeded 80 in number, being ſeized by the country people, confeſſed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of London. Notwithſtanding this horrid crime, the bigotted catholics were ſo devoted to Garnet, a jeſuit, one of the conſpirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was conſidered as a martyr.

Anſpach, refuſed to ſecond them againſt Spinola the Spaniſh general, and that the elector hurt his own cauſe by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops inſtead of Anſpach.

James has been greatly and juſtly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His firſt was Robert Car, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raiſed to be firſt miniſter and earl of Somerſet. He married the counteſs of Eſſex, who had obtained a divorce from her huſband, and was with her found guilty of poiſoning Sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James, contrary as is ſaid to a ſolemn oath he made, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upon Somerſet's diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and familiarity with his ſovereign. James had at that time formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this ſyſtem he had ſacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies. James having loſt his eldeſt ſon Henry, prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popiſh match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his ſon Charles, who had ſucceeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the ſon as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and againſt the king's will they travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, where a moſt ſolemn farce of courtſhip was played; but the prince returned without his bride, and, had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Briſtol, who was then embaſſador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not perſuade to furniſh money equal to his demands; and at laſt he agreed to his ſon's marrying the princeſs Henrietta Maria, ſiſter to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of this match, and it is thought that had he lived, he would have diſcarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of 22 years. As to the progreſs of the arts and learning under his reign, it has been already deſcribed. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter, Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the pure taſte of architecture in England. His was the golden reign for theological learning; and under him poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, arrived at its vertical point.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princeſs Henrietta Maria. He ſeems to have been but a cold lover, and he quarrelled with and ſent back her favourite attendants a few days after her arrival in England. On the other hand, ſhe had a high ſpirit, diſdained and diſliked every thing that was incompatible in government with her Italian and arbitrary education, and was a diſagreeable wife, notwithſtanding her huſband's ſubmiſſion and tenderneſs. The ſpirit of the people had forced the late king into a breach with Spain, and Charles early gave ſuch indications of his partiality for Buckingham, and his own deſpotic temper, that the parliament was remiſs in furniſhing him with money for carrying on the war. In a ſhort time Buckingham perſuaded Charles to take the part of the French Hugonots, in their quarrel with that crown. They were ſo ill ſupported, though Charles was ſincere in ſerving them, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the proteſtant intereſt received an

irrecoverable blow in France. The blame of all the public miſcarriages and diſgraces was thrown by, the almoſt, unanimous voice both of the parliament and people upon the favourite; but he ſheltered himſelf from their vengeance under the royal protection till he was murdered by one Felton, a ſubaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which ſoon after ſurrendered to cardinal Richlieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, which happened in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the Engliſh patriots in that enlightened age conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade, which were refuſed to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the houſe of commons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The houſe of commons reſented thoſe proceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying admittance to the gentleman-uſher of the back rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach, and the king diſſolved the parliament, after which he exhibited informations againſt nine of the moſt eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden. They objected to the juriſdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were ſent to priſon during the king's pleaſure.

Every thing now operated towards the deſtruction of Charles. The commons had voted him no money even for the maintenance of his houſhold, and preſuming on what had been practiſed in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not at all underſtood, he levied money upon monopolies of ſalt, ſoap, and ſuch neceſſaries, and other obſolete claims, particularly for knighthood. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Boſtwick, a phyſician, all of them men of mean parts, but deſperately reſolute and fiery, ſounded the trumpet of ſedition, and their puniſhments were ſo ſevere that they encreaſed the unpopularity of the government. Unfortunately for Charles, he put his conſcience into the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſed him to perſecute the puritans, and to introduce the religion of the church of England into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded England, where Charles was ſo ill-ſerved by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots; but neither party being ſincere in obſerving the terms, and Charles diſcovering that ſome of their great men had offered to throw themſelves under the protection of the French king, he raiſed a freſh army by virtue of his prerogative. All his preparations, however, were baffled by the Scots, who made themſelves maſters of Newcaſtle and Durham, and being now openly befriended by the houſe of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles did this with ſo bad a grace, though he took a journey to Scotland for that purpoſe, that it did him no ſervice; on the contrary, it encouraged the commons to riſe in their demands. He had made Wentworth earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, preſident of the counſel of the north, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed to be the firſt miniſter of ſtate. Strafford had been at the head of the oppoſition, and by changing his party he became ſo much the object of public deteſtation, that they forced Charles in an illegal and imperious manner

manner to conſent to the cutting off his head; and Laud loſt his ſoon after in like manner.

Charles, upon various occaſions, ſaw the neceſſity of moderation, and ſought to recover the affections of his people, firſt by paſſing the petition of right, and afterwards agreeing to other popular demands made by the commons. Theſe compliances did him no ſervice. A rebellion broke out in Ireland, where the proteſtants were maſſacred by the papiſts, and great pains were taken to perſuade the public that Charles ſecretly favoured them out of hatred to his Engliſh ſubjects. The biſhops were expelled the houſe of peers, and the leaders of the Engliſh houſe of commons ſtill kept up a correſpondence with the diſcontented Scots. Charles was ill enough adviſed to go in perſon to the houſe of commons, and demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, Sir Arthur Haſelrig, and Mr. Stroud, ſhould be apprehended, but they previouſly had made their eſcape. This act of Charles was reſented as high treaſon againſt his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of ſatisfaction he could make them. The city of London took the alarm, and the accuſed members into its protection. The train-bands were raiſed, and the mobs were ſo unruly, that Charles removed from Whitehall to Hampton-court, and from thence into Yorkſhire, where he raiſed an army to face that which the parliament, or rather the houſe of commons, had raiſed in and about London.

That the nation in general did not think their liberties in danger, or that the king was a tyrant, appears from the alacrity and numbers with which he was ſerved, and which was compoſed of three-fourths of the landed property of England. The parliament, however, took upon themſelves the executive power, and were favoured by many of the trading towns and corporations, but its great reſource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindſey, a brave, but not an enterprizing commander, but he had great dependence on his nephews the princes Rupert and Maurice, ſons to the elector palatine, by his ſiſter the princeſs Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war the ſenſe of honour which prevailed among the king's officers was too ſtrong for the principles on which the parliament forces fought, but a ſpirit of enthuſiaſm catching the latter, it became too powerful for honour. The earl of Eſſex was made general under the parliament, and the firſt battle was fought at Edge-hill in Warwickſhire, in October 1642; but both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles, for the parliament was ſo much diſtreſſed, that they invited the Scots to come to their aſſiſtance; and they accordingly invaded England anew, with about 20,000 horſe and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houſes met; but his enemies continued ſtill ſitting at Weſtminſter, where they proſecuted their animoſities againſt the royaliſts with great fury. The independent party, which had ſcarcely before been thought of, began now to unmaſk themſelves and to figure at Weſtminſter. They equally hated the preſbyterians, who till then had conducted the rebellion, as they did the royaliſts; and ſuch was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed, for diſmiſſing the earls of Eſſex, and Manchester, and the heads of the preſbyterians, from the parliament's ſervice, and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a preſbyterian, and ſome independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with unremitting fury on both ſides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, in which the

advantage inclined to the king. He had likewiſe many other ſucceſſes, and having defeated Sir William Waller, he purſued the earl of Eſſex, who remained ſtill in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to eſcape by ſea, but his infantry ſurrendered themſelves priſoners to the royaliſts, though his cavalry delivered themſelves by their valour.

The firſt fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marſton-moor, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Mancheſter defeated the royal army, of which 4,000 were killed, and 1,500 taken priſoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell, and though it might have been retrieved by the ſucceſſes of Charles in the weſt, yet his whole conduct was a ſtring of miſtakes, till at laſt, his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were ſet on foot during the war, and the heads of the preſbyterian party would have agreed to terms, that would have bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted, betrayed, and overruled, by the independents, who were aſſiſted by the ſtiffneſs, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himſelf. In ſhort, the independents at laſt ſucceeded, in perſuading the members at Weſtminſter, that Charles was not to be truſted, whatever his conceſſions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royaliſts ruſhed into ruin. Sir Thomas Fairfax, whoſe father, lord Fairfax, remained in the north, was at the head of the army, which was now new modelled, ſo that Charles by piecemeal loſt all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the deciſive battle of Naſeby, owing partly as uſual to the miſconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed by freſh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be ſafe.

The Scots were then beſieging Newark, and no good underſtanding ſubſiſted between them and the Engliſh parliamentarians, but the beſt and moſt loyal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy ſituation of his affairs, he eſcaped in diſguiſe from Oxford to the Scotch army before Newark, upon a promiſe of protection. The Scots, however, were ſo intimidated, by the reſolutions of the parliament at Weſtminſter, that they put the perſon of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commiſſioners, not ſuſpecting the fatal conſequences.

The preſbyterians now ſaw, more than ever, the neceſſity of making peace with the king, but they were no longer maſters, being forced to receive laws from the army, and the independents. The latter now avowed their intentions. They firſt by force took Charles out of the hands of the commiſſioners in June 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might ſtill take place with the king, they impriſoned 41 of the preſbyterian members, voted the houſe of peers to be uſeleſs, and that of the commons was reduced to 150 independents, and moſt of them officers of the army. In the mean while Charles, who unhappily promiſed himſelf relief from thoſe diſſentions, was carried from priſon to priſon, and ſometimes cajoled by the independents, with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were ſet on foot, but all miſcarried, and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an eſcape, to put himſelf into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the iſle of Wight. A freſh negociation was begun and almoſt finiſhed, when the independents, dreading the general diſpoſition of the people for peace,

peace, once more ſeized upon the king's perſon, brought him a priſoner to London, carried him before a mock court of juſtice, of their own erecting, and after a ſham trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and there is reaſon to believe, that affliction had taught him ſo much wiſdom and moderation, that had he been reſtored to his throne, he would have become a moſt excellent prince. This undoubtedly was the ſenſe of his people, at the time of his murder, as it was univerſally deteſted by all but the parricides, who brought him to the block, and were heated by enthuſiaſm. Many, in the courſe of the rebellion, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became ſincere converts to his cauſe, in which they loſt their lives and fortunes, and never did any prince die more generally lamented, than he did, by his people. We cannot reflect upon the great loſs of lives, to the amount at leaſt of 100,000 fighting men, during the ſix years of the civil war, without being inclined to think that England was more populous then, than it is now. Though the hiſtory of that period has been minutely related, by writers of all parties, who had the very beſt opportunities to know the true ſtate of the nation, yet we do not find that the loſs of men had any influence upon agriculture or commerce, or the exerciſe of the common arts of life, and proviſions rather ſunk than roſe in their value. The ſurviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were ſucceſſively kings of England, Henry, duke of Glouceſter, who died ſoon after his brother's reſtoration; the princeſs Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William, prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princeſs Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whoſe daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, were men of different perſuaſions and principles, but many of them poſſeſſed moſt amazing abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give a perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England, and it cannot be denied, that after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things, for retrieving the glory of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians, and both factions hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots, at the battles of Dunbar and Worceſter. The ſame commonwealth paſſed an act of navigation, and declaring war againſt the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible at ſea, they effectually humbled thoſe republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time Cromwell, who hated the republic, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the Engliſh army. Admiral Blake, and the other Engliſh admirals, carried the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea, to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten, for which reaſon he went without any ceremony, with a file of muſqueteers, diſſolved the parliament, and opprobriouſly drove all the members out of their houſe. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power

was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to about 140 perſons, whom he ſummoned to Whitehall on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious, ſtill continued. Seven bloody engagements by ſea, were fought in little more than the compaſs of one year, and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he muſt encounter unſurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood, and his other friends, if he ſhould perſiſt in his reſolution. He was, however, declared lord protector of the common-wealth of England, a title, under which he exerciſed all the power that had been formerly annext to the regal dignity. He next proceeded to new model the government, and various were the ſchemes that were propoſed, eſtabliſhed, and proved abortive. Thoſe ſchemes, however, were temporary, and ſuited to each juncture, nor have we any high idea of Cromwell's political capacity, but in his management of the army, by which he did every thing. He was openly or ſecretly thwarted by people of property all over England, and however dazzled hiſtorians have been with his amazing fortune and power, it appears, from the beſt evidences, that during the continuance of his protectorate, he was perpetually diſtreſt for money, to keep the wheels of his government going.

His wants at laſt led him into the fatal error of taking part with France againſt Spain, in hopes that the rich Spaniſh prizes would ſupply him with ready money. He lent the French court 6000 men, and Dunkirk being taken by their aſſiſtance from the Spaniards, he took poſſeſſion of it. Finding that his uſurpation gave as much diſcontent to his own party, as terror to the royaliſts, he had thoughts of renewing the model of the conſtitution, and actually erected a houſe of lords out of his own creatures. No king ever acted either in England, or Scotland, more deſpotically than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even thoſe few threatened to oppoſe him, if he ſhould take upon him the title of king. Hiſtorians, in drawing a character of Cromwell, have been impoſed upon by his amazing ſucceſs, and dazzled by the luſtre of his fortune; but when we conſult Thurloe's, and other ſtate papers, the impoſition in a great meaſure vaniſhes. After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died ſurrounded by enthuſiaſts, on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more reſpect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than ſhe had been treated with ſince the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell aboliſhed, and who as it were inſtantaneouſly called forth the naval ſtrength of the kingdom. Neither they nor Cromwell had formed any fixed plan of legiſlation, and his ſafety was owing to the different ſentiments of government, that prevailed among the heads of the republic. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to 1,300,000 l., of which a million went to the ſupport of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the ſame year, Cromwell aboliſhed all tenures *in capite*, by knight's ſervice, and ſoccage in chief, and likewiſe the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances that had been complained of, during the late reigns, were likewiſe removed. Next year the total charge, or public expence of England, amounted to 2,326,989 l.

The

The collections by aſſeſſments, exciſe, and cuſtoms paid into the Exchequer, amounted to 2,362,000l. 4s.

Upon the whole it appears, that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches as in power. The legal intereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a ſure ſymptom of encreaſing commerce. The navigation act, that palladium of the Engliſh trade, was planned and eſtabliſhed, though afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was granted, to the vaſt advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffered greatly by Laud's intolerant ſchemes having driven numbers of handicrafts to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations, we may add the modeſty and frugality, introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to encreaſe their capitals. It appears however that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly ſettled in the government, would have broken through the ſober maxims of the republicans; for, ſome time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his perſon, court, and attendants. We know of no art, or ſcience, that was patronized by the uſurper, and yet he had the good fortune to meet in the perſon of Cooper, an excellent miniature painter, and his coins done by Simons, exceed in beauty and workmanſhip any of that age. He is likewiſe ſaid to have paid ſome regard to men of learning, and particularly to thoſe entruſted with the care of youth at the univerſities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who ſucceeded his father Oliver, as protector, ſufficiently proves the little forecaſt, which the latter had in matters of government, and his being almoſt totally unbefriended. Richard was placed in his dignity by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool of their own government, and he was ſoon after driven without the leaſt ſtruggle or oppoſition into contempt and obſcurity. It is in vain for hiſtorians of any party to aſcribe the reſtoration of Charles II. (who with his mother and brothers, during the uſurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious ſubſiſtence) to the merits of any particular perſons. It was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who found by experience, that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by reſtoring the ancient conſtitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, excepting ſuch as ſerved his ambition or intereſt, had the ſagacity to obſerve this, and after temporizing in various ſhapes, being at the head of the army, he made the principal figure in reſtoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being reſtored in 1660, in the firſt year of his reign, ſeemed to be under no influence, but that of his people's happineſs. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the exciſe for life, and in this act, coffee and tea are firſt mentioned. By his long reſidence, and that of his friends abroad, he imported into England, the culture of many elegant vegetables, ſuch as that of aſparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and ſeveral kinds of beans, peas, and ſallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered, but neglected, by the Engliſh, during the late uſurpation, was improved and made a ſugar colony. The Royal Society was inſtituted, and many popular acts reſpecting trade and colonization were paſſed. In ſhort,

Charles knew, and cultivated the true intereſts of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence, failings that had the ſame conſequences as deſpotiſm itſelf. He took a paternal concern in the ſufferings of the citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666, and its being rebuilt with greater luſtre and conveniences, is a proof of the encreaſe of her trade; but there was no bound of Charles's love of pleaſure, which led him into the moſt extravagant expences. He has been ſeverely, but perhaps unjuſtly cenſured, for ſelling Dunkirk to the French king, to ſupply his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered the immenſe ſums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000l. ſterling. In this he is more defenſible, than he was with his ſecret connections with France. Theſe are ſuppoſed to have brought on a war with the Dutch, but their behaviour and ingratitude to England, merited the ſevereſt chaſtiſement.

The firſt ſymptoms of his degeneracy as a king, appeared in his giving way to the popular clamour againſt the lord Clarendon, one of the wiſeſt and moſt diſintereſted ſtateſmen, that ever England could boaſt of, and ſacrificing him to the ſycophants of his pleaſurable hours. The firſt Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on, with great reſolution and ſpirit, under the duke of York, but through Charles's miſapplication of the public money, which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to inſult the royal navy of England, by ſailing up the Medway, as far as Chatham, and deſtroying ſeveral capital ſhips of war. Soon after this a peace was concluded at Breda, between Great Britain and the States General, for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands, and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, it was called the triple alliance.

If we look into the hiſtory of thoſe times, we ſhall find that the humbling the power of France, was the ruling paſſion of almoſt all the reſt of Europe; but at the ſame time every ſtate at enmity with her, had particular views of its own, which defeated every plan of confederacy againſt the French power. The ſituation of Charles, in this reſpect, was delicate. The inſults and rivalſhip of the Dutch, were intolerable to the trading part of his people, but his parliament thought that all conſiderations ought to give way to the humiliation of the French king. Charles found ſuch oppoſition from his parliament, and ſuch difficulties in raiſing money, that he was perſuaded by his French miſtreſs the ducheſs of Portſmouth, to throw himſelf into the arms of the French king, who promiſed to ſupply him with money, ſufficient to enable him to rule without a parliament. This has always been a capital charge againſt Charles II. and it had, I am apt to think, too great a weight with his parliament, whoſe conduct, in ſome particulars, is not to be vindicated.

In 1671, Charles was ſo ill adviſed, as to ſeize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8 l. per cent. and to ſhut up the Exchequer. This was an indefenſible ſtep, and Charles pretended to juſtify it by the neceſſity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a freſh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almoſt proved fatal to that republic. In this war the Engliſh fleet, and army, acted in conjunction with thoſe of France. The duke of York commanded the Engliſh fleet, and diſplayed great gallantry in that ſtation. The duke of Monmouth, the eldeſt and favourite natural ſon of Charles, commanded 6000 Engliſh forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries, and all Holland muſt have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not

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been for the vanity of their monarch, Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and ſome very unforeſeen circumſtances.

All confidence was now loſt between Charles and his parliament, notwithſtanding the glory which the Engliſh fleet obtained by ſea againſt the Dutch. The popular clamour at laſt obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in conſideration of 200,000 l. which was paid him; but in ſome things Charles acted very deſpotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houſes, and ordered them to be ſhut up, but in a few days after to be opened. His parliament addreſſed him, but in vain, to make war with France, in the year 1677, for he was entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a penſioner. It is not however to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increaſed, and Charles entered into many vigorous meaſures for its protection and ſupport.

This gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more furious, and untractable, againſt the French and the Papiſts; at the head of whom was the king's eldeſt brother, and preſumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles, notwithſtanding the oppoſition he met with in parliament, knew that he had the affections of his people, but was too indolent to take advantage of that circumſtance. He dreaded the proſpect of a civil war, and offered any conceſſions to avoid it. The conduct of his parliament on this occaſion is indefenſible. Many of the members were bent upon ſuch a revolution as afterwards took place, and were ſecretly determined, that the duke of York never ſhould reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and ſome other miſcreants, forged a plot, charging the papiſts with a deſign to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jeſuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more ſelf-contradictory, than the whole of this forgery, yet it was ſupported by even a frantic zeal, on the part of the parliament. The aged and innocent lord Stafford, Coleman, ſecretary to the duke of York, with many Jeſuits, and other papiſts, were publicly executed on perjured evidences. The queen herſelf eſcaped with difficulty: The duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts, and Charles, though convinced that the whole was an infamous impoſture, yielded to the torrent. At laſt it ſpent its force. The earl of Shafteſbury, who was at the head of the oppoſition, puſhed on the total excluſion of the duke of York from the throne. He was ſeconded by the ill adviſed duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after paſſing the commons, miſcarried in the houſe of peers. All England was again in a flame, but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, recovered the affections of his people to an almoſt incredible degree.

The duke of York, and his party, made a ſcandalous uſe of their victory. They trumped up on their ſide a plot of the proteſtants for killing or ſeizing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as falſe as that which had been forged againſt the papiſts. The excellent lord Ruſſel, who had been remarkable in his oppoſition to the popiſh ſucceſſion, Algernon Sidney, and ſeveral diſtinguiſhed proteſtants, were tried, condemned and ſuffered death, and the king ſet his foot upon the neck of oppoſition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the meaſures

meaſures of the court, as were almoſt all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth, and the earl of Shafteſbury, were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and to have executed ſome meaſures for the future quiet of his reign, when he died in February, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he received a large fortune in ready money, beſides the town and fortreſs of Tangier in Africa, but he left behind him no lawful iſſue. The deſcendents of his natural ſons and daughters, are now among the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the Britiſh nobility.

In recounting the principal events of this reign, I have been ſufficiently explicit as to the principles, both of the king and the oppoſition to his government. The heads of the latter were preſbyterians, and had been greatly inſtrumental in the civil war againſt the late king, and the uſurpations that followed. They had been raiſed and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being uſeful in bringing their party into his meaſures, and he would probably have ſucceeded, had not the remains of the old royaliſts, and the diſſipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleaſure. The preſbyterians, however, availed themſelves of their credit, in the early part of his reign, when the fervour of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament ſuch a number of their friends, as rendered the reign of Charles very uneaſy, and it was owing, perhaps, to them, that civil liberty, and proteſtantiſm, now exiſt in the Engliſh government. On the other hand, they ſeemed to have carried their jealouſy of a popiſh ſucceſſor too far, and the people, without doors, certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been ſatisfied with the legal reſtraints and diſabilities, which Charles offered to impoſe upon his ſucceſſor. This gave ſuch a turn to the affections of the people, as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, maſters of the laws and liberties of England.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and galantry, but both were coarſe and indelicate. The court was the nurſery of vice, and the ſtages exhibited ſcenes of impurity. Some readers, however, were found, who could admire Milton, as well as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England ſo well ſupplied with preachers, as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural, witneſs the ſtile of their ſermons; and the days of Charles may be called the Auguſtan age of mathematics, and natural philoſophy. Charles loved, patronized, and underſtood the arts, more than he encouraged, or rewarded them, eſpecially thoſe of Engliſh growth, but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedneſs but indolence, and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the firſt Engliſh prince, who formed a body of ſtanding forces as guards to his perſon, it ought to be remembered, at the ſame time, that he carried the art of ſhip-building to the higheſt perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its fineſt improvements to his, and his brother's complete knowlege of naval affairs and architecture.

All the oppoſition which, during the late reign, had ſhaken the throne, ſeems to have vaniſhed, at the acceſſion of James II. The popular affection towards him was encreaſed by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all reſiſtance to the reigning king to be unlawful.

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This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almoſt ruined proteſtantiſm. The army and people ſupported him, in cruſhing an ill-formed and indeed wicked rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful ſon of Charles II. and, as ſuch, had aſſumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, James deſperately reſolved to try how far the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-reſiſtance. The experiment failed him. He made the moſt provoking ſteps to render popery the eſtabliſhed religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of diſpenſing with the known laws; he inſtituted an illegal eccleſiaſtical court, he openly received and admitted into his privy-council, the pope's emiſſaries, and gave them more reſpect than was due to the miniſters of a ſovereign prince. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almoſt beyond deſcription, and were diſapproved of by the pope himſelf, and all ſober Roman catholics. His ſending to priſon, and proſecuting for a libel, ſeven biſhops, for preſenting a petition againſt reading his declaration, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his beſt proteſtant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wiſhed well to James, applied for relief to William, prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and ſon-in-law of James, having married the princeſs Mary, that king's eldeſt daughter, and he embarked with a fleet of 500 ſail for England, on pretence of reſtoring church and ſtate to their due rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but many whom James had conſidered as his beſt friends; and even his daughter the princeſs Anne, and her huſband, George, prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange, who ſoon diſcovered that he expected the crown. James might ſtill have reigned, but he was ſurrounded with French emiſſaries, and ignorant Jeſuits, who wiſhed him not to reign rather than not reſtore popery. They ſecretly perſuaded him to ſend his queen and ſon, the late pretender, then but ſix months old, to France, and to follow them in perſon, which he did; and thus in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in Engliſh hiſtory is termed *the revolution*.

This ſhort reign affords little matter for the national progreſs in its true intereſts. James is allowed, on all hands, to have underſtood them, and that had it not been for his bigotry, he would have been a moſt excellent king of England. The writings of the Engliſh divines againſt popery, in this reign, are eſteemed to be the moſt maſterly pieces of controverſy that ever were publiſhed on that ſubject.

Had it not been for the baleful influence of the Jeſuits over James, the prince of Orange might have found his views upon the crown fruſtrated. The conduct of James gave him advantages, he could not have hoped for. Few were in the prince's ſecret, and when a convention of the ſtates was called, it was plain that had not James abdicated his throne, it would not have been filled by the prince and princeſs of Orange. Even that was not done without long debates. It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt uninterrupted courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which were ſupported by England, at an expence ſhe had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through

through the experience of the two laſt reigns, and he gave his conſent to the *bill of rights*, which contained all the people could claim, for the preſervation of their liberties. The two laſt kings had made a very bad uſe of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be ſufficient to raiſe and maintain a ſtanding army. The revenue was therefore divided, part was allotted for the current national ſervice of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament, and part, which is ſtill called the civil liſt money, was given to the king, for the ſupport of his houſe and dignity.

It was the juſt ſenſe the people had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke the people of England to agree to the late revolution, for they never in other reſpects had been at ſo high a pitch of wealth and proſperity, as in the year 1688. The tonage of their merchant ſhips, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was, that year, near double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonage of the royal navy, which in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 encreaſed to 101,032 tons. The encreaſe of the cuſtoms, and the annual rental of England, was in the ſame proportion. It was therefore no wonder, if a ſtrong party, both in the parliament and nation, was formed againſt the government, which was hourly encreaſed by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being ſucceſsful, required an enormous expence, and the Iriſh continued in general, faithful to king James. Many Engliſh who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being reſtored by conqueſt, and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyn againſt James, who there loſt all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France, however, proved ſuperior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue, which the French feel to this day.

Invaſions were threatened, and conſpiracies diſcovered every day againſt the government, and the ſupply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new reſources for money. A land-tax was impoſed, and every ſubject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the ſeveral counties. Thoſe who were the moſt loyal were the heavieſt taxed, and this prepoſterous burthen ſtill continues; but the greateſt and boldeſt operation in finances, that ever took place, was eſtabliſhed in this reign, which was carrying on the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary ſecurities, which form what are now called the public funds. The chief projector of this ſcheme, is ſaid to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for ſuch a project was, that it would oblige the moneyed part of the nation to befriend the revolution intereſt, becauſe after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid, but by ſupporting that intereſt, and that the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more induſtrious. How well thoſe views have been anſwered, is needleſs to obſerve, as I have already mentioned the preſent ſtate of public credit.

William, notwithſtanding the vaſt ſervice he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auſpices, particularly in the eſtabliſhment of the bank of England, and the recoining the ſilver money, met with ſo many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually reſolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a ſpeech for

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that purpoſe, which he was prevailed upon to ſuppreſs. He long bore the affronts he met with in hopes of being ſupported in his war with France, but at laſt, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryſwick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had loſt his queen, but the government was continued in his perſon. After peace was reſtored, the commons obliged him to diſband his army, all but an inconſiderable number, and to diſmiſs his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign his fears of ſeeing the whole Spaniſh monarchy in poſſeſſion of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic meaſure, which was the Partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria. This treaty was highly reſented by the parliament, and ſome of his miniſtry were impeached for adviſing it. It is thought that William ſaw his error when it was too late. His miniſters were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of king James diſcovered the inſincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his ſon king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houſes paſſed the bill of abjuration, and an addreſs for a war with France. The laſt and moſt glorious act of William's reign was his paſſing the bill for ſettling the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Hanover, on the twelfth of June 1701. His death was haſtened by a fall he had from his horſe, ſoon after he had renewed the grand alliance againſt France, on the eighth of March, 1702, the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding. His notions of national government inclined towards deſpotiſm; and it was obſerved that though he owed his royalty to the whigs, yet he favoured the tories, as often as he could do it with ſafety. The reſcue and preſervation of the proteſtant religion and public liberty were the chief glories of William's reign, for England under him ſuffered ſeverely both by ſea and land, and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to the then unheard of ſum of 14,000,000 l. I have nothing to add after this, as to the general ſtate of England in the beginning of the 18th century.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, being the next proteſtant heir to her father James II. ſucceeded king William in the throne. As ſhe had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought ſhe would have deviated from his meaſures, but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has ſince been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice, and ſhe reſolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been impriſoned in the late reign on a ſuſpicion of Jacobitiſm, and whoſe wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a ſtateſman, for that earl excelled in both. No ſooner was he placed at the head of the Engliſh army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in conſequence of the intrigues of France, and at the ſame time reſenting the Partition treaty, in which his conſent had not been aſked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon of Lewis XIV. and Philip was immediately pro-

claimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance, that ſtill ſubſiſts, between France and that nation. Philip's ſucceſſion was however diſputed by the ſecond ſon of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himſelf the title of Charles III. and his cauſe was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers who joined in a confederacy againſt the houſe of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquiſition of the whole Spaniſh dominions.

The capital meaſure of continuing the war againſt France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her miniſtry, who were for the moſt part tories, and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treaſury. His ſon had married the earl of Marlborough's eldeſt daughter, and the earl could truſt no other with that important department.

I ſhall hereafter have occaſion to mention the glorious victories obtained by the earl, who was ſoon made duke of Marlborough. Thoſe of Blenheim and Ramilies gave the firſt effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim, the empire of Germany was ſaved from immediate deſtruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confeſſedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken priſoner, and ſent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, beſides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the ſame time, the Engliſh admiral, Sir George Rook, reduced Gibraltar, which ſtill remains in our poſſeſſion. The battle of Ramilies was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loſs of the enemy there has been variouſly reported; it is generally ſuppoſed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken priſoners; but the conſequences ſhewed its importance.

After the battle of Ramilies, the ſtates of Flanders aſſembled at Ghent, and recognized Charles for their ſovereign, while the confederates took poſſeſſion of Louvain, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges and Antwerp; and ſeveral other conſiderable places in Flanders and Brabant, and acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, where they loſt 3000 on the field, and about 7000 were taken priſoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, with the loſs of about 20,000 men. Thus far I have recounted the flattering ſucceſſes of the Engliſh, but they were attended with many potions of bitter alloy.

The queen had ſent a very fine army to aſſiſt Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portugueſe, the Engliſh were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though ſome advantages were obtained at ſea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment if not the diſgrace of England. Prince George of Denmark, huſband to the queen, was then lord high admiral, but he had truſted the affairs of that board to underlings, who were either corrupted or ignorant, and complaints coming from every quarter, with regard to that department, the houſe of commons were put in very bad humour, nor did things ſeem to be much better managed after the prince's death. The immenſe ſums raiſed for the current ſervice of the year being ſe-

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verely felt, and but indifferently accounted for, it appeared that England had borne the chief burden of the war; that neither the Auſtrians, Germans, nor Dutch, had furniſhed their ſtipulated quotas, and that they truſted to the Engliſh parliament for making them good. A noble deſign, which had been planned at the court, and was to have been executed by the aſſiſtance of the fleet of England, for taking Toulon, at a vaſt expence, miſcarried through the ſelfiſhneſs of the court of Vienna, whoſe chief object of attention was their own war in Naples. At the ſame time England felt ſeverely the ſcarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures, and the French king, the haughty Lewis XIV. now profeſſed his readineſs to agree to almoſt any terms the Engliſh ſhould preſcribe.

Theſe and many other internal diſputes about the prerogative, the ſucceſſion, religion, and other public matters, had created great ferments in the nation and parliament. The queen ſtuck cloſe to the duke of Marlborough and his friends, who finding that the tories inclined to treat with France, put themſelves at the head of the whigs, who were for continuing the war, from which the duke and his dependents received immenſe emoluments. The failures of the Germans and Dutch could not however be longer diſſembled, and the perſonal intereſt of the ducheſs of Marlborough with the queen began to be ſhaken by her own inſolence.

The whigs at laſt were forced to give way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburg. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townſhend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. It ſoon appeared that the Engliſh plenipotentiaries were not in earneſt, and that the Dutch were entirely guided by the duke of Marlborough. The French king was gradually brought to comply with all the demands of the allies, excepting that of employing his own troops againſt the duke of Anjou, in Spain, where the fortune of war continued ſtill doubtful. All his offers were rejected by the duke and his aſſociate, and the war was continued.

The unreaſonable haughtineſs of the Engliſh plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg ſaved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in their favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was not deſtitute of ſenſe, and faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, muſt prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the people was that the church was in danger, which, though groundleſs, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthleſs preacher, had eſpouſed this clamour in one of his ſermons, with the ridiculous, impracticable doctrines of paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their ſtrength in this man's caſe. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to paſs upon him only a very ſmall cenſure. After this trial the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the ducheſs of Marlborough, and the whig adminiſtration. Her friends loſt their places, which were ſupplied by tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a ceſſation of arms; but they were diſregarded by the queen's allies in the Britiſh pay.

Conferences were opened for a peace at Utrecht, to which the queen and the French king ſent plenipotentiaries, and the allies being defeated

at Denain, they grew ſenſible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the Engliſh. In ſhort, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not be informed of the particular ceſſions made by the French, eſpecially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been indefenſible had it not been for the death of the emperor Joſeph, by which his brother Charles III, for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain, and the bad faith of the Engliſh allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the Britiſh parliament almoſt the whole weight of the war, not to mention the exhauſted ſtate of the kingdom. Mr. Harley, who was created earl of Oxford, and lord high treaſurer of England, was then conſidered as the queen's firſt miniſter, but the negociations for the peace went through the hands of Mr. Harley and lord Bolingbroke, one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate. The miniſtry endeavoured to ſtifle the complaints of the whigs, and the remonſtrances of prince Eugene, who arrived in England on the part of the allies, by falling upon the contractors, foragers, and other agents of the fleet and army, whom they accuſed of corrupt practices.

The queen was at this time in a critical ſituation. The whigs, without attempting to anſwer the arguments of the tories for peace, condemned it as ſhameful. The majority of the houſe of lords was of that party, but that of the houſe of commons were tories. The queen was afraid that the peers would reject the peace, and by an unprecedented exerciſe of her prerogative ſhe created twelve peers at one time, which ſecured the approbation of the parliament for the peace. Such was the ſtate of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think from their complexion that the queen had by ſome ſecret influence, which never has yet been diſcovered, and was even concealed from her miniſters, inclined to call her brother to the ſucceſſion. The reſt of the queen's life was rendered uneaſy by the jarring of parties. The whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England, and ſhe was obliged to diſmiſs her lord treaſurer, when ſhe fell into a lethargic diſorder, which carried her off on the firſt of Auguſt 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign*. I have nothing to add to what I have already ſaid of her character, but that though ſhe was a favourite with neither party in her parliament till towards the end of her reign, when the tories affected to idolize her, yet her people dignified her with the name of the Good queen Anne. Notwithſtanding all I have ſaid of the exhauſted ſtate of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions, ſo firm was the dependence of the people upon the ſecurity of parliament.

Anne

* And with her ended the line of the Stewarts, which from the acceſſion of James I. anno 1603, had ſwayed the ſceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the acceſſion of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, ſon of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's deceaſe, anno 1702, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germains, and treated as ſuch by the courts of Rome, France, Spain and Turin. He reſided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romiſh faith till his death, which happened a few years ſince. He left two ſons, viz. Charles Edward, who was defeated at Culloden, in 1746, and upon his father's death, repaired to Rome, where he is ſaid to reſide as a private gentleman. Henry, his ſecond ſon, enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York.

Anne had not ſtrength of mind, by herſelf, to carry any important reſolve into execution; and ſhe left public meaſures in ſo indeciſive a ſtate, that upon her death the ſucceſſion took place in terms of the act of ſettlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, was proclaimed king of Great Britain, his mother, who would have been next in ſucceſſion, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with ſtrong prepoſſeſſions againſt the tory miniſtry, moſt of whom he diſplaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; while the Scots were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily ſuppreſſed in the beginning of the next year. Some deluded noblemen and gentlemen in the north of England joined a party of the Scotch rebels, but they were ſurrounded at Preſton, where they delivered up their arms, and their leaders were ſent priſoners to London, where ſome of them ſuffered. The tories and Jacobites, however, raiſed mobs and commotions at London, Oxford, and other parts of England, but they were ſoon ſuppreſſed by making their ringleaders examples of juſtice. Lord Oxford was impriſoned for three years, but the capital proſecution of him by the whigs for the hand he had in the peace of Utrecht, was ſecretly diſapproved of by the king, and dropped.

After all, the nation was in ſuch a diſpoſition that the miniſtry durſt not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was ſitting voted a continuance of their duration from three to ſeven years, which is thought to have been the greateſt ſtretch of parliamentary power ever known. Several other extraordinary meaſures took place about the ſame time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent ſpeaker, and member of parliament, was ſent to the Tower for ſaying that the king's ſpeech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for compoſing a ſilly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadverſion. The truth is, the whig miniſtry were exceſſively jealous of every thing that ſeemed to affect their maſter's title, and George I. though a ſagacious moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too ſubſervient to his continental connections, which were various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muſcovy about their German concerns, and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden been killed ſo critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by thoſe northern conquerors, great preparations being made for that purpoſe.

In 1718 he quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance, that had been formed by Great Britain, France, Germany, and the ſtates general; and his admiral, Sir George Byng, by his orders, deſtroyed the Spaniſh fleet near Syracuſe. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was ſoon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national puniſhment different from plague, peſtilence and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the ſudden riſe of the South-Sea Stock, one of the trading companies. This company was but of late erection, and was owing to a ſcheme of carrying on an excluſive trade, and making a ſettlement in the South-Seas, which had been formed in 1711. In 1720 the company obtained an act to encreaſe their capital ſtock by redeeming the public debts; and was then inveſted with the aſſiento of negroes, which had been ſtipulated between Great Britain and Spain. In ſhort, it became ſo favourite a company, that by

the twentieth of June this year, their ſtock roſe to 890 per cent. and afterwards to 1000; but before the end of September it fell to 150, by which thouſands were involved in ruin. Though this might be owing to the inconſiderate avarice of the ſubſcribers, yet the public imagined that the miniſtry had contributed to the calamity; and ſome of the directors inſinuated as if the miniſters and their friends had been the chief gainers. The latter, however, had the addreſs to eſcape without cenſure, but the parliament paſſed a bill which confiſcated the eſtates of the directors, with an allowance for their maintenance; a poor reparation for the public injuries.

The Jacobites thought to avail themſelves of the national diſcontent of the South-Sea ſcheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day encreaſed. On this, one Layer, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high-treaſon. Several perſons of great quality and diſtinction were apprehended on ſuſpicion, but the ſtorm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord biſhop of Rocheſter, who was deprived of his ſee and ſeat in parliament, and baniſhed for life. This muſt have been at beſt an idle plot, and the reality of it has never been diſcovered, ſo that the juſtice of the biſhop's cenſure has been queſtioned. After the ferment of this plot had ſubſided, the miniſtry, who were all in the intereſt of Hanover, ventured upon ſeveral bold meaſures, in ſome of which the national intereſt if not honour was evidently ſacrificed to that electorate. The crown of Great Britain was engaged in every continental diſpute, however remote it was from her intereſt; and the difference ſtill ſubſiſting between the courts of Madrid and Vienna, it was agreed that it ſhould be determined by a congreſs to be held at Cambray, under the auſpices of France. This congreſs proved abortive, and England was involved in freſh difficulties on account of Hanover. So fluctuating was the ſtate of Europe at this time, that in September 1725, a freſh treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Great-Britain, France, and Pruſſia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A ſquadron was ſent to the Baltic, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the Weſt Indies to watch the Spaniſh plate fleets. This laſt was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and moſt of his men periſhed by epidemical diſeaſes, and the hulks of his ſhips rotted ſo as to render them unfit for ſervice. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They loſt near 10,000 men in the ſiege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raiſe. The king in his ſpeech to the parliament, publicly accuſed the emperor of a deſign to place the pretender upon the throne of Great Britain, but this was ſtrenuouſly denied by baron Palmer, the imperial reſident at London, who was therefore ordered to leave the kingdom.

A quarrel with the emperor was the moſt dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an oppoſition in the houſe of commons was formed by Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more laviſh in granting money, and raiſing enormous ſubſidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel. Such was the ſtate of affairs in Europe, when George I. ſuddenly died on the eleventh of June 1727, at Oſnaburgh, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. This period is too late to offer any thing new by way of obſervation on national improvements. The reign of George I. is remarkable for the incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects,

jects, to which it gave riſe, and for the great alteration of the ſyſtem of Europe, by the concern which the Engliſh took in the affairs of the continent. The inſtitution of the ſinking fund for diminiſhing the national debt, is likewiſe owing to this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better underſtood than formerly, and the ſtate of manufactures began to ſhift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal diſtribution of the land tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to ſubſiſt in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their eſtates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of England when George I. died, and ſome differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought upon the acceſſion of the latter to the crown that Sir Robert would be diſplaced. That might have been the caſe could another perſon have been found equally capable, as he was, to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify that predileſtion for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No miniſter ever underſtood better the temper of the people of England, and none perhaps ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought that war muſt be fatal to his power. The times are too recent for me to enter upon particulars. It is ſufficient to ſay, that during his long adminiſtration he never loſt a queſtion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſcheme was the firſt meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an inſurrection, or endangered his intereſt in the next general election. Having compromiſed all differences with Spain, he filled all the courts of Europe with embaſſies and negociations, and the new parliament gratified him with the means of performing his engagements. He continued and enlarged the ſubſidies paid to the German princes for the ſecurity of Hanover, and had even the addreſs to obtain from time to time votes of credit for fulfilling his intermediate engagements, and in the mean while, to amuſe the public, he ſuffered enquiries into the ſtate of the jails, and other matters that did not affect his own power, to proceed.

His pacific ſyſtem brought him, however, into inconveniencies both at home and abroad. He encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the Britiſh ſhipping in the American ſeas, and the French to treat the Engliſh court with inſolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themſelves ſlighted, and they intereſted themſelves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the diſguſt of the people at the propoſed exciſe ſcheme, about the year 1736 and 1737, encreaſed the minority in the houſe of commons to 130, ſome of whom were as able men and as good ſpeakers as ever had ſat in a parliament, and taking advantage of the encreaſing complaints againſt the Spaniards, they gave the miniſter great uneaſineſs. Having thus ſhewn Walpole's adminiſtration in the unfavourable, it is but juſt we turn to the moſt advantageous light it will admit of.

He filled the courts of juſtice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perverſion of the known laws of the kingdom. He was ſo far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous abuſe that was thrown out to

his face. He gave way to one or two profecutions for libels, in complaiſance to his friends, who thought themſelves affected by them, and it cannot be denied that the preſs of England never was more open or free than during his adminiſtration. If he managed the majority of parliament by corruption, which is the main charge againſt him, it is not to be denied that his enemies were often influenced by no very laudable motives, and that the attempt they made, without ſpecifying any charge, to remove him from his majeſty's councils and preſence for ever, was illegal and unjuſt. As to his pacific ſyſtem, it certainly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to ſupport it, by the encreaſe of her trade, and the improvement of her manufactures.

With regard to the king's own perſonal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his miniſter than his favourite, and his majeſty often hinted to him, as Walpole himſelf has been heard to acknowledge, that he was reſponſible for all the meaſures of government. The debates concerning the Spaniſh depredations in the Weſt Indies, and the proofs that were brought to ſupport the complaints of the merchants, made at laſt an impreſſion even upon many of Walpole's friends. The heads of the oppoſition in both houſes of parliament accuſed the miniſter of having by the treaty of Seville, and other negociations, introduced a branch of the houſe of Bourbon into Italy, and depreſſed the houſe of Auſtria, the antient and natural ally of England. They expoſed, with invincible force of eloquence and reaſoning, the injuſtice and diſgrace as well as loſs ariſing from the Spaniſh depredations, and the neceſſity of repelling force by force. Sir Robert adhered to his pacific ſyſtem, and concluded a ſhameful and indefenſible compromiſe, under the title of a convention, with the court of Spain, which produced a war with that nation.

Queen Caroline, conſort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the miniſter, but ſhe died when a variance ſubſiſted between the king and his ſon the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power, but the proviſion to which his birth entitled him, and he put himſelf at the head of the oppoſition with ſo much firmneſs that it was generally foreſeen that Walpole's power was drawing to a criſis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the miniſter, was ſent with a ſquadron of ſix ſhips to the Weſt Indies, where he took and demoliſhed Porto Bello; but being a hot, impracticable man, he miſcarried in his other attempts, eſpecially that upon Carthagena, in which many thouſands of Britiſh lives were wantonly thrown away. The oppoſition exulted in Vernon's ſucceſs, and imputed his miſcarriages to the miniſter's ſtarving the war, by with-holding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, ſo prevalent was the intereſt of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the miniſter, and after a few trying diviſions he retired from the houſe, reſigned his employments, and ſome days after was created earl of Orford.

George II. bore the loſt of his miniſter with the greateſt equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour and poſts of diſtinction upon the heads of the oppoſition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic ſanction (which meant the ſucceſſion of his daughter to the Auſtrian dominions) through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent cauſes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able,

able, but a headſtrong miniſter, whom George had made his ſecretary of ſtate, and, indeed, by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himſelf at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, and his not ſuffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderneſs for his electoral dominions. This partiality created a univerſal flame in England, and the clamour raiſed againſt his lordſhip's meaſures was encreaſed by the duke of Newcaſtle and his brother, lord chancellor Hardwicke, the lord Harrington, and other miniſters, who reſigned, or offered to reſign their places if lord Carteret ſhould retain his influence in the cabinet. His majeſty was obliged to give way to what he thought was the voice of his people, and he indulged them with accepting the ſervices of ſome gentlemen who never had been conſidered as zealous friends to the houſe of Hanover. After various removals, Mr. Pelham was placed at the head of the treaſury, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and conſequently was conſidered as firſt miniſter, or rather the power of the premierſhip was divided between him and his brother the duke of Newcaſtle.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expenſive war both againſt the French and Spaniards, and her enemies ſought to avail themſelves of the general diſcontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, exceeded the bounds of duty. This naturally ſuggeſted to them the idea of applying to the pretender, who reſided at Rome, and he agreed that his ſon Charles, who was a ſprightly young man, ſhould repair to France, from whence he ſet ſail, and narrowly eſcaped with a few followers in a frigate to the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, between the iſlands of Mull and Sky, where he diſcovered himſelf, aſſembled his followers, and publiſhed a manifeſto exciting the nation to a rebellion. It is neceſſary, before we relate the unaccountable ſucceſs of this enterprize, to make a ſhort retroſpect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the Weſt Indies, through the fatal diviſions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops, and it was thought that above 20,000 Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen periſhed in the impracticable attempt of Carthagena, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been ſpent in negociations with the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, which, though expenſive, proved of little or no ſervice to Great Britain, ſo that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Leſtock had ſuffered the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of Toulon with but little loſs; and ſoon after the French, who had before acted only as allies to the Spaniards, declared war againſt Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war againſt the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war carried on a moſt lucrative trade, nor could they be brought to act againſt the French, till the people entered into aſſociations and inſurrections againſt the government. Their marine was in a miſerable condition, and when they at laſt ſent a body of troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which, indeed, had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with ſo bad a grace, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earneſt. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himſelf the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt maſters of the barrier in the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay. The duke attempted

tempted to raiſe the ſiege, but by the coldneſs of the Auſtrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government all along held a ſecret correſpondence with France, and miſconduct ſomewhere elſe, he loſt the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his beſt men, though it is generally allowed that his diſpoſitions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance ſuch a train of misfortunes, admiral Anſon returned this year to England, with an immenſe treaſure, which he had taken from the Spaniards, in his voyage round the world; and the Engliſh commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortreſs of Louiſbourg in the iſland of Cape Breton.

Such was the ſtate of affairs abroad in Auguſt 1745, when the pretender's eldeſt ſon, at the head of ſome Highland followers, ſurprized and diſarmed a party of the king's troops in the Weſtern iſlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. I ſhall only add to what I have already ſaid of the progreſs and ſuppreſſion of this rebellion, that it ſpread too great an alarm through England. The government never ſo thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the ſupport of the revolution. The French and the Jacobite party (for ſuch there was at that time in England) had laid a deep ſcheme for diſtreſſing the Bank; but common danger aboliſhed all diſtinctions, and united them in the defence of one intereſt, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their addreſs to the king, to ſupport it, by receiving bank-notes in payment. This ſeaſonable meaſure ſaved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, and the executions that followed, did not reſtore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, ſon-in-law to his majeſty George II. was, by the credit of his majeſty and the ſpirit of the people of the United Provinces, raiſed to be their ſtadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maeſtricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made priſoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been accounted for. The allies ſuffered other diſgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was neceſſary to ſave the duke and his army from total deſtruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the Engliſh at ſea, under the commands of the admirals Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the Engliſh arms were not ſo ſucceſsful as could have been wiſhed under rear admiral Boſcawen in the Eaſt-Indies. In this ſtate of affairs, the ſucceſſes of the French and Engliſh during the war, may be ſaid to have been balanced, and both miniſtries turned their thoughts to peace. The queſtion is not yet decided which party had the greateſt reaſon to deſire it, the French and Spaniards for the immenſe loſſes they had ſuſtained by ſea, or the allies for the diſgraces they had ſuffered by land.

Whatever may be in this, preliminaries for peace were ſigned in April 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, in October, the baſis of which was the reſtitution on both ſides of all places taken during the war. The number of prizes taken by the Engliſh in this war, from its commencement to the ſigning the preliminaries of peace, was 3434; namely, 1249 from the Spaniards, and 2185 from the French; and that they loſt during the war, 3238; 1360 being taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 by the French. Several of the ſhips taken from the Spaniards

niards were immenſely rich; ſo that the balance upon the whole amounted to almoſt two millions, in favour of the Engliſh. Such is the groſs calculation on both ſides, but the conſequences plainly proved that the loſſes of the French and Spaniards muſt have been much greater. The vaſt fortunes made by private perſons in England all of a ſudden, ſufficiently ſhewed that immenſe ſums had not been brought to the public account; but the greateſt proof was, that next year the intereſt of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for ſeven years, after which the whole was to ſtand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldeſt ſtroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, conſiſtently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a ſmall ineffectual oppoſition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who ſold out even made intereſt to have it replaced on the ſame ſecurity, or were paid off their principal ſums out of the ſinking fund. This was an æra of improvements; Mr. Pelham's candour and rectitude of adminiſtration leaving him few or no enemies in parliament, and he omitted no opportunity of carrying into execution every ſcheme for the improvement of commerce, manufactures, and the fiſheries; the benefits of which were felt during the ſucceeding war, and are to this day. Every intelligent perſon, however, conſidered the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as no better than an armed ceſſation of hoſtilities. The French employed themſelves in recruiting and repairing their marine, and had laid a deep ſcheme for poſſeſſing themſelves of the Britiſh back ſettlements in America, and for cutting off all communication between the Engliſh and the native Indians, in which caſe our colonies muſt have been reduced to a narrow ſlip on the coaſts, without the means of getting any ſubſiſtance but from the mother country. Fortunately for Great-Britain, they diſcloſed their intention by entering upon hoſtilities before they had power to ſupport them.

In the mean while, a new treaty of commerce was ſigned at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in conſideration of 100,000 l. the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the aſſiento contract, by virtue of which, that company had ſupplied the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died, univerſally lamented, his royal highneſs Frederic prince of Wales. In May 1751, an act paſſed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old ſtyle was abolished, and the new ſtyle eſtabliſhed, to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubject. This was done by ſinking eleven days in September 1752, and thereafter beginning the year on the 1ſt of January. In 1753 the famous act paſſed for preventing clandeſtine marriages; but whether it is for the benefit of the ſubject is a point that is ſtill very queſtionable. The public of England about this time ſuſtained an immenſe loſs by the death of Mr. Pelham, who was indiſputably the honeſteſt, wiſeſt, the moſt popular, and therefore the moſt ſucceſsful miniſter England had ever ſeen.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back ſettlements in America, and the diſpoſitions they made for ſending over vaſt bodies of veteran troops to ſupport thoſe encroachments, produced a wonderful ſpirit in England, eſpecially after admiral Boſcawen was ordered with eleven ſhips of the line, beſides a frigate and two regiments, to ſail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the reſt of their fleet eſcaping up the river St. Lawrence, by the ſtraits of Belleiſle. No ſooner was it known that hoſtilities were begun, than the public of England poured their money into the government's

government's loan, and orders were iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopped and brought into Britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, above 300 of the richeſt French merchant ſhips, and above 8000 of their beſt ſailors were brought into Britiſh ports. This well-timed meaſure had ſuch an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchant-men, nor to man their ſhips of war, for about two years after near 30,000 French ſeamen were found to be priſoners in England.

In July 1755, general Braddock, who had been injudiciouſly ſent from England to attack the French and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French and Indians near Fort du Queſne; but major general Johnſon defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

The Engliſh at this time could not be ſaid to have any firſt miniſter; ſome great men agreed in nothing but in oppoſing the meaſures of the cabinet, which had been undertaken without their conſent. The Engliſh navy in 1755 conſiſted of one ſhip of 110 guns, five of 100 guns each, thirteen of 90, eight of 80, five of 74, twenty-nine of 70, four of 66, one of 64, thirty-three of 60, three of 54, twenty-eight of 50, four of 44, thirty-five of 40, and forty-two of 20; four ſloops of war of 18 guns each, two of 16, eleven of 14, thirteen of 12, and one of 10; beſides a great number of bomb-ketches, fireſhips, and tenders; a force ſufficient to oppoſe the united maritime ſtrength of all the powers of Europe. Whilſt that of the French, even at the end of this year, and including the ſhips then upon the ſtocks, amounted to no more than ſix ſhips of 80 guns, twenty-one of 74, one of 72, four of 70, thirty-one of 64, two of 60, ſix of 50, and thirty-two frigates.

In proportion as the ſpirits of the public were elevated by thoſe invincible armaments, they were ſunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack fort St. Philip there, that admiral Byng, who had been ſent out with a ſquadron at leaſt equal to that of the French, had been baffled if not defeated by their admiral Galiſſoniere, and that at laſt Minorca was ſurrendered by general Blakeney. The Engliſh were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at thoſe events. The loſs of Minorca was more ſhameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the public outcry was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, and he was ſhot to death at Portſmouth for cowardice.

It was about this time that Mr. Pitt was placed, as ſecretary of ſtate, at the head of the adminiſtration. He had been long known to be a bold ſpeaker, and he ſoon proved himſelf to be as ſpirited a miniſter. The miſcarriages in the Mediterranean had no conſequence but the loſs of fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vaſt ſucceſs of the Engliſh privateers, both in Europe and America. The ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in the Eaſt-Indies, under colonel Clive, are almoſt incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Baha, and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the antient ſeat of the new nabobs of thoſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French intereſt, was a few days after his being defeated taken by the new nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn's ſon, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the preſent amazing extent of riches and territory, which the Engliſh now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new ſyſtem of operations againſt France, than which nothing could be better calculated to reſtore the ſpirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invaſion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itſelf, and the deſcent was to be made at Rochefort, under general Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſitions for this expedition. It ſailed on the 8th of September 1757, and admiral Hawke brought both the ſea and land forces back on the 6th of October, to St. Helen's, without the general making an attempt to land on the coaſt of France. He was tried and acquitted without the public murmuring, ſo great an opinion had the people of the miniſter, who, to do him juſtice, did not ſuffer a man or a ſhip belonging to the Engliſh army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a moſt powerful army, merely becauſe his Britannic majeſty refuſed to wink at their encroachments in America, the Engliſh parliament, in gratitude, voted large ſupplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been ſent thither to command an army of obſervation, but he had been ſo powerfully preſſed by a ſuperior army, that he found himſelf obliged to lay down his arms, and the French, under the duke of Richelieu, took poſſeſſion of that electorate, and its capital. At this time, a ſcarcity next to a famine raged in England; and the Heſſian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been ſent to defend the kingdom from an invaſion intended by the French, remained ſtill in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758 a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majeſty and the king of Pruſſia; in conſequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000l. to his Pruſſian majeſty; and alſo voted large ſums, amounting in the whole to near two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Heſſe-Caſſel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards ſo burdenſome to England, was intended to unite the proteſtant intereſt in Germany.

George II. with the conſent of his Pruſſian majeſty, pretending that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Cloſterſeven, ordered his Hanoverian ſubjects to reſume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, a Pruſſian general, who inſtantly drove them out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the Engliſh had repeatedly inſulted the French coaſts, by deſtroying their ſtores and ſhipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 Britiſh troops, which were afterwards encreaſed to 25,000. A ſharp war enſued. The Engliſh every where performed wonders, and according to the accounts publiſhed in the London Gazette, they were every where victorious, but nothing deciſive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the moſt glorious, perhaps, in the Engliſh annals, in which about 7000 Engliſh defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops in fair battle, contributed nothing to the concluſion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The Engliſh bore the expence of the war with chearfulneſs, and applauded Mr. Pitt's adminiſtration, becauſe their glorious ſucceſſes in every other part of the globe demonſtrated that he was in earneſt. Admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt, in Auguſt 1758, reduced and demoliſhed Louiſbourg, in North America, which had been reſtored to the French by

the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the ſcourge of the Britiſh trade, and took five or ſix French ſhips of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Queſne, in the ſame quarter, fell alſo into the hands of the Engliſh: acquiſitions that far overbalanced a check which the Engliſh received at Ticonderago, and the loſs of about 300 of the Engliſh guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coaſt of France.

The Engliſh affairs in the Eaſt Indies this year proved equally fortunate, and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pocock engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's, on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the Bien Aimé, of 74 guns, was ſo much damaged that they run her on ſhore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded, on this occaſion, and the Engliſh only 29 killed, and 89 wounded. That on the third of Auguſt following, he engaged the French fleet a ſecond time, near Pondicherry; when, after a briſk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the ſail they could make, and got ſafe into the road of Pondicherry. The loſs of the French in this engagement was 540 killed and wounded; and that of the Engliſh only 147 killed and wounded. And that on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in thoſe parts, marched to beſiege Madraſs, which was defended by the Engliſh colonels Laurence and Draper; and after a briſk cannonade, which laſted till the 16th of February following, the Engliſh having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raiſe the ſiege and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him 40 pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the iſland of Goree, on the coaſt of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved ſucceſsful. One of them was againſt the French iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The ſecond expedition was againſt Quebec, the capital of the French Canada. The command was given, by the miniſter's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was oppoſed with far ſuperior forces by Moncalm, the beſt and moſt ſucceſsful general the French had. Though the ſituation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Moncalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounting incredible difficulties, he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himſelf killed; and general Monckton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reſerved for brigadier general (now lord viſcount) Townſhend.

General Amherſt, who was the firſt Engliſh general on command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Laurence. It is to the honour of the miniſter that Mr. Amherſt in this expedition was ſo well provided with every thing that could make it ſucceſsful, that there ſcarcely appeared any chance for its miſcarriage, and thus the French empire in North America became ſubject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their credit ruined, they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſion of Great Britain:

tain: but, on the 18th of Auguſt, 1759, admiral Boſcawen attacked the Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the ſtraits of Gibraltar, took Le Centaur of 74, Le Temeraire of 74, and Le Modeſte of 74 guns; and burnt L'Ocean of 80, and Le Redoubtable of 74 guns. The reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line, and three frigates, made their eſcape in the night. And on November 20, Sir Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the Theſée of 74, and the Superbe of 70 guns, were ſunk; and the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Heros of 74, were burnt. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns overboard; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of five ſhips of the line, and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. The Engliſh loſt on this occaſion, upon the ſhoals of the coaſt, the Eſſex of 64, and the Reſolution of 74 guns. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invaſion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, Captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had with three ſloops of war alarmed the coaſts of Scotland, and actually made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, who was the commodore of three ſhips, inferior in force to the Frenchman's ſquadron. Every day's gazette added to the accounts of the ſucceſſes of the Engliſh, and the utter ruin of the French finances, which that government did not bluſh publicly to avow. In ſhort, Great Britain now reigned as ſole miſtreſs of the main, and had ſucceeded in every meaſure that had been projected for her own ſafety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued ſtill as undeciſive as it was expenſive, and many in England began to conſider it now as foreign to the internal intereſts of Great Britain. The French again and again ſhewed diſpoſitions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little leſs than eighteen millions ſterling yearly, inclined the Britiſh miniſtry to liſten to their propoſals. A negociation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation, but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died ſuddenly, full of years and glory, in the 77th of his age and 33d of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, now George III. eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehenſible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could ſeparate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions, and he was ſometimes ill enough adviſed to declare ſo much in his ſpeeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was juſt rather than generous, and in matters of œconomy, either in his ſtate or his houſhold, he was willing to connive at abuſes, if they had the ſanction of law and cuſtom. By this means thoſe miſmanagements about his court were multiplied to an enormous degree, and even underclerks in offices amaſſed fortunes ten times greater than their legal ſalaries or perquiſites could raiſe. He was not very acceſſible to converſation, and therefore it was no wonder that having left Germany after he had attained to man's eſtate, he ſtill retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with Sir Robert Walpole's adminiſtration with great indifference, and ſhewed very little concern at the

ſubſe-

ſubſequent revolutions among his ſervants. This quality may be deemed a virtue, as it contributed greatly to the internal quiet of his reign, and prevented the people from loading the king with the faults of his miniſters. In his perſonal diſpoſition he was paſſionate, but placable, fearleſs of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he ſerved when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary courſe of juſtice; and though his reign was diſtracted by party, the courts of juſtice were never better filled than under him: this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

The brighter the national glory was at the time of George II.'s death, the more arduous was the province of his ſucceſſor, George III. Born and bred in England, he had no prepoſſeſſions but for his native country, and an excellent education gave him true notions of its intereſts, therefore he was not to be impoſed upon by flattering appearances. He knew that neither the finances, nor the population of England could furniſh men and money for ſupplying the neceſſities of the war, ſucceſsful as it was, and yet he was obliged to continue it, ſo as to bring it to a happy period. He choſe for his firſt miniſter the earl of Bute, whom he had known ever ſince he began to know himſelf, and among the firſt acts of his reign was to convince the public that the death of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon; as did the important fortreſs of Pondicherry in the Eaſt Indies to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the French Weſt Indies ſtill continued under general Monckton, lord Rollo, and Sir James Dowglaſs; and in 1762, the iſland of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the iſlands of Grenada, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were ſubdued by the Britiſh arms, with inconceivable rapidity.

By this time the famous family compact among all the branches of the Bourbon family had been concluded, and it was found neceſſary to declare war againſt Spain, who having been hitherto no principals in the quarrel, had ſcandalouſly abuſed their neutrality in favour of the French. A reſpectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pocock, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces, and the vitals of the Spaniſh monarchy were ſtruck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort which his catholic majeſty held in the Weſt Indies. The capture of the Hermione, a large Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million ſterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treaſure paſſed in triumph through Weſtminſter to the Bank, the very hour he was born. The loſs of the Havannah, with the ſhips and treaſures there taken from the Spaniards, was ſucceeded by the reduction of Manilla in the Eaſt Indies, by general Draper and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract thoſe dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards opened their laſt reſource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the Britiſh arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended is not for me to decide. It certainly embarraſſed his Britannic majeſty, who was obliged to ſend thither armaments both by ſea and land; but theſe found no great difficulty in checking the progreſs of the Spaniards.

The

The negotiations for peace were now resumed, and the necessity of concluding one was acknowledged by all his majesty's ministers and privy counsellors excepting two. Many difficulties were surmounted, but the equally useless and expensive war in Germany was continued between the French and English with greater fury than ever. The enemy, however, at last granted such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate to the occasion. A cessation of arms took place in Germany, and in all other quarters, and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was solemnly proclaimed at the usual places in Westminster and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met with the approbation of a majority of both houses.

By this treaty, the extensive province of Canada, with the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great Britain; also the two Floridas, with the whole of the continent of North America, on this side the Missisippi, except the town of New Orleans, and a small district round it, was surrendered to us by France and Spain, in consideration of our restoring to Spain the island of Cuba; and to France the islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Desirade; and in consideration of our granting the French the two small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coast of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretensions to the neutral island of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the islands of Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitted their pretensions to the neutral islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the settlement of Senegal, by which we engross the whole gum trade of that country; but we returned Goree, a small island of little value. The article that relates to the East Indies, was dictated by the directors of the English company, which restores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they shall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal. And the city of Manilla was restored to the Spaniards; but they granted to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewise, the French restored to us the island of Minorca, and we restored to them the island of Belleisle. In Germany, after six years spent in marches and counter-marches, numerous skirmishes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but, at the expence of 30 millions sterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual restitution and oblivion should take place, and each party sit down at the end of the war in the same situation in which they began it. And peace was restored between Portugal and Spain, both sides to be upon the same footing as before the war.

Thus ended a war (such were the effects of unanimity at home) the most brilliant in the English annals. No national prejudices, nor party disputes then existed. The same truly British spirit by which the minister was animated, fired the breast of the soldier and seaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages, and the monied man, pleased with the aspect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the minister, and courage of the people, chearfully opened his purse. The incredible sums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raised by a few citizens of London, upon a short notice, for the service of the years 1759, 1760,

and 1761, was no leſs aſtoniſhing to Europe, than the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe *.

WALES.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has diſtinctions in language, and manners, I have, in conformity with the common cuſtom, aſſigned it a ſeparate article.

NAME AND LANGUAGE.] The Welch are deſcendants, according to the beſt antiquaries, of the Belgic Gauls, who made a ſettlement in England about fourſcore years before the firſt deſcent of Julius Cæſar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles (the G and W being promiſcuouſly uſed by the antient Britons) that is, Strangers. Their language has a ſtrong affinity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and deſcriptive powers by thoſe who underſtand it.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT. } Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at preſent, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themſelves maſters of all the plain country, the Welch, or antient Britons, were ſhut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat weſtward. It does not, however, appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conqueſts in their country, than Monmouthſhire and Herefordſhire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits. See ENGLAND.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] The ſeaſons are pretty much the ſame as in Scotland and the northern parts of England, and the air is ſharp but wholeſome. The ſoil of Wales, eſpecially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye,

* GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE ROYAL FAMILY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

George William Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760; and married, September 8, 1761, to the princeſs Sophia Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have iſſue;

1. George Auguſtus Frederick, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12, 1762.
2. Prince Frederick, born Auguſt 16, 1763, elected biſhop of Oſnaburg February 27, 1764.
3. Prince William Henry, born Auguſt 21, 1765.
4. Princeſs Charlotte, born September 29, 1766.
5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767.
6. Princeſs Auguſta Sophia, born November 8, 1768.
7. Princeſs Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.

Auguſta, daughter to Frederic II. duke of Saxe Gotha, now princeſs dowager of Wales, was born November 30, 1719.

Her iſſue by the late prince of Wales:

1. Her royal highneſs Auguſta, born Auguſt 11, 1737, married to the hereditary prince of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, January 16, 1764.
2. His preſent majeſty.
3. Prince William Henry, duke of Glouceſter, born November 25, 1743.
4. Prince Henry Frederic, duke of Cumberland, born November 7, 1745.
5. Princeſs Caroline Matilda, born July 22, 1751; married at St. James's, Oct. 1, 1766, by proxy, to Chriſtian VII. king of Denmark.

His late majeſty's iſſue by queen Caroline, now living:

1. Princeſs Amelia Sophia, born June 10, 1711.
2. Princeſs Mary, born March 5, 1723-4, married to the prince of Heſſe Caſſel, July 19, 1740.

rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-ſtone and ſlate, ſeveral mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well ſupplied with wholeſome ſprings, and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furniſh Flintſhire with great quantities of fiſh. Holywell contains an excellent mineral water, the virtues of which are attributed by the common people to the female martyr St. Winifred.

MOUNTAINS.] It would be endleſs to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Carnarvonſhire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery, and partly in Cardiganſhire, are the moſt famous; and it was probably by their mountainous ſituation that the natives made ſo noble and long a ſtruggle againſt the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] In theſe particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horſes are ſmaller, but can endure vaſt fatigue, and their black cattle are ſmall likewiſe, but excellent beef, and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. As for the other productions of Wales, ſee England and Scotland. Some very promiſing mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron, have been diſcovered in Wales. The Welch ſilver may be known by its being ſtamped with the oſtrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The inhabitants of Wales are ſuppoſed to amount to about 300,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the neceſſaries, and many of the comforts of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in ſome years ago about 43,752 l. a year. The Welch are, if poſſible, more jealous of their liberties than the Engliſh, and far more iraſcible, but their anger ſoon abates, and they are remarkable for fidelity and attachment, eſpecially to their own countrymen. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the moſt remote antiquity, but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuſcripts, ſome of which they pretend to be coeval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of their antient hiſtory, eſpecially the eccleſiaſtical, is more antient, and better atteſted than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thalieſſin, who lived about the year 450, and whoſe works were certainly extant at the time of the reformation, and clearly evinces that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the hiſtory which makes the preſent Welch the deſcendants of the antient Trojans. This poetical genius ſeems to have influenced the antient Welch with an enthuſiaſm for independency, for which reaſon Edward I. is ſaid to have made a general maſſacre of the bards, an inhumanity which was characteriſtical of that ambitious prince. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by keeping up their antient hoſpitality, and a ſtrict adherence to their antient cuſtoms and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the ſtream of faſhion. We are not, however, to imagine that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better ſort of the Welch ſpeak the Engliſh language, though numbers of them underſtand the Welch.

RELIGION.] I have already mentioned the maſſacre of the Welch clergy by Auguſtine, the popiſh apoſtle of England, becauſe they would

not conform to the Romiſh ritual. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romiſh clergy inſinuated themſelves into their favour, by their pretended power of abſolving them from crimes, and the Welch, when their antient clergy were extinct, conformed themſelves to the religion of Rome. The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for, and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and Engliſh. Their poverty was formerly a vaſt diſcouragement to religion and learning, but the meaſures taken by the ſociety for propagating chriſtian knowledge has effectually removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer ſort of the Welch. In the year 1749, 142 ſchoolmaſters were employed in removing from place to place for the inſtruction of the inhabitants, and their ſcholars amounted to 72,264. No people have diſtinguiſhed themſelves more, perhaps, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print at a vaſt expence bibles, common prayers, and other religious books, and diſtribute them gratis to the poorer ſort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-ſchool.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Wales is that of the church of England, but their common people in many places are ſo tenacious of their antient cuſtoms, that they retain ſeveral of the Romiſh ſuperſtitions, and ſome antient families among them, are ſtill Roman catholics. It is likewiſe ſaid, that Wales abounds with Romiſh prieſts in diſguiſe.

For BISHOPRICS (See England.) We are however to obſerve, that in former times Wales contained more biſhoprics than it does now, and about the time of the conqueſt of England, the religious foundations there, far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was the ſeat of learning when England knew not the uſe of letters. It ſuffered, as I have already hinted, an eclipſe, by their repeated maſſacres of the clergy and bards. Wickliffiſm took ſhelter in Wales, when it was perſecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch diſpute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrenſis, whoſe hiſtory was publiſhed by Camden, is thought to have been a Welchman, and Leland mentions ſeveral learned men of the ſame country, who flouriſhed before the reformation. The diſcovery of the famous king Arthur's, and his wife's burying place, was owing to ſome lines of Thalieſſin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the reformation, Wales has produced ſeveral excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter was Hugh Broughton and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former were ſeveral gentlemen of the name of Llhuyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work the Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewiſe a Welchman, as was that great ſtateſman and prelate, the lord keeper Williams, archbiſhop of York, in the time of king Charles I. After all, I muſt be of opinion, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and hiſtory of their own country. Wales, notwithſtanding all that Dr. Hickes, and other antiquaries, have ſaid to the contrary, furniſhed the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonſtrated by Mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inſcriptions of undoubted authority (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua.) I muſt not however omit, the excellent hiſtory of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert of Cherbury. With

With regard to modern Welchmen of learning, they are ſo numerous, that it would be unjuſt to particulariſe any. It is ſufficient to ſay that their clergy are now excellent ſcholars, and the Welch make as good a figure in literature as any of their neighbours. The Welch Pater-noſter is as follows.

Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, ſanctteiddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoedd: dyro i ni heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a maddeu i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddeuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth, eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn oes oeſoedd. Amen.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. Several of its caſtles are ſtupendouſly large; and in ſome the remains of Roman architecture are plainly diſcernible. The architecture of others are doubtful, and ſome appear to be partly Britiſh, and partly Roman. In Brecknockſhire are ſome rude ſculptures, upon a ſtone ſix feet high, called the Maiden-Stone; but the remains of the druidical inſtitutions, and places of worſhip, are chiefly diſcernible in the iſle of Angleſey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who deſcribes it as being the chief ſeminary of the druidical rites and religion. To give a deſcription of the Roman altars, antiquities and utenſils, which have been diſcovered in Wales, would be endleſs; but future antiquaries may make great diſcoveries from them. Among the other artificial curioſities, is king Offa's dyke, which is ſaid to have been a boundary between the Saxons, and the Welch or Britons. Cherphilly-caſtle in Glamorganſhire, is ſaid to have been the largeſt in Great-Britain, excepting Windſor, and the remains of it ſhew it to have been a moſt beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other over-hangs its baſis more than nine feet, and is as great a curioſity as the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

Some curious coins of Welch princes are ſaid to be found in the cabinets of the curious, but I do not find that they have been very ſerviceable in aſcertaining the ancient hiſtory of the country.

The chief natural curioſities are as follow. At a ſmall village, called Newton in Glamorganſhire, is a remarkable ſpring nigh the ſea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the ſea. In Merionethſhire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Carnarvonſhire is the high mountain of Penmanmooer, acroſs the edge of which the public road lies, and occaſions no ſmall terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rock ſeems ready every minute to cruſh them to pieces, and the great precipice below, which hangs over the ſea, is ſo hideous, and, till very lately when a wall was raiſed on the ſide of the road, full of danger, that one falſe ſtep was of diſmal conſequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular meaſurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable, either for populouſneſs or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Angleſey, and has a harbour for ſhips. Brecknock trades in cloathing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and ſilver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs and aldermen, who wear ſcarlet gowns, and other enſigns of ſtate. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradeſmen, and part of the county is ſo fertile, and pleaſant, that it is called Little England. As to the other towns of Wales, I

ſhall not mention them. I am however to obſerve, that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country, than it is at preſent; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old caſtles are ſo ſtrongly built, and ſo well ſituated, that they might be turned into ſtrong forts, by a little expence; witneſs the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars, between Charles I. and his parliament.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the weſtern and northern counties of England. Their trade is moſtly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milfordhaven, which is reckoned the fineſt in Europe, lies in Pembrokeſhire, but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late conſiderable ſums have been granted by parliament for its fortifications. It lies under two capital diſadvantages. The firſt is, that by making it the rendezvous of all the Engliſh marine, a bold attempt of an enemy might totally deſtroy the ſhipping, however ſtrongly they may be defended by walls and forts. The ſame objection however lies to every harbour that contains ſhips of war and merchantmen. The ſecond, and perhaps the chief diſadvantage it lies under, is the ſtrong oppoſition to rendering it the capital harbour of the kingdom, that it muſt meet with in parliament, from the numerous Corniſh and Weſt-country members, the benefit of whoſe eſtates muſt be greatly leſſened by the diſuſe of Plymouth, and Portſmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral woollen manufactures, and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England and even Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united, and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the Engliſh form; all laws, cuſtoms, and tenures, contrary to thoſe of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the Engliſh liberties and privileges, particularly that of ſending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every ſhire, and a burgeſs for every ſhire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the ſame reign, there were ordained four ſeveral circuits, for the adminiſtration of juſtice in the ſaid ſhires, each of which was to include three ſhires; ſo that the chief juſtice of Cheſter has under his juriſdiction the three ſeveral ſhires of Flint, Denbigh and Montgomery. The ſhires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Angleſey, are under the juſtices of North Wales. Thoſe of Caermarthen, Pembrokeſhire and Cardigan, have alſo their juſtices; as have likewiſe thoſe of Radnor, Brecknock and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other juſtice-aſſiſtant was ordained to the former juſtices; ſo that now every one of the ſaid four circuits has two juſtices, viz. one chief juſtice, and a ſecond juſtice-aſſiſtant.

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, I have already mentioned the land-tax, and the crown has a certain, though ſmall property, in the product of the ſilver and lead-mines; but it is ſaid that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales for his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8000 l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of the prince of Wales differ from thoſe of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of oſtrich feathers, was occaſioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poictiers, and the motto is *Ich dien*, I ſerve. St. David, com-

commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar ſaint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1ſt of March, and for which various reaſons have been aſſigned.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were ſovereign and independent, appears from the Engliſh hiſtory. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of the Britons, the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. Theſe people cut out ſo much work for the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely ſubdued, though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of caſtles, was bridled by garriſons. Though the Saxons, as I have already obſerved, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes, and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three ſons; and the names of theſe diviſions were, Deemetia, or South Wales; Poveſia, or Powis-Land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This diviſion gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to ſerve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppoſe them. They made, however, many vigorous brave attempts againſt the Norman kings of England, to maintain their liberties, and even the Engliſh hiſtorians admit the injuſtice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was firſt ſupplied with a handle for the future conqueſt of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellin, in order to be ſafe from the perſecutions of his undutiful ſon Griffyn, having put himſelf under ſubjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could ſatisfy the ambition of Edward I. who reſolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellin, prince of Wales, diſdaining the ſubjection to which old Llewellin had ſubmitted, Edward raiſed an irreſiſtible army at a prodigious expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking poſſeſſion of the iſle of Angleſey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to ſubmit to pay a tribute. The Welch however made ſeveral efforts under young Llewellin, but at laſt, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was ſucceeded by his brother David, the laſt independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him moſt barbarouſly and unjuſtly hanged, and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman maſſacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not ſufficient to complete his conqueſt, he ſent his queen to be delivered in Carnarvon caſtle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themſelves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always deſcended to the eldeſt ſons of the Engliſh kings. The hiſtory of Wales and England becomes now the ſame. It is proper, however, to obſerve, that the kings of England have always found it their intereſt to ſoothe the Welch, with particular marks of their regard. Their eldeſt ſons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow, and a regular council with a preſident was named by the crown, for the adminiſtration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought ſo neceſſary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no ſon, his daughter Mary was created princeſs of Wales.

IRELAND.

Situation, boundaries, and extent.

THE iſland of Ireland is ſituated on the weſt ſide of England, between 6 and 10 degrees weſt longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longeſt day is 16 ½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the tenth clime, where the longeſt day is 17 ½ hours.

The extent, or ſuperficial content of this kingdom is, from the neareſt computation and ſurvey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north, to Miſſenhead ſouth; and from the eaſt part of Down, to the weſt part of Mayo, its greateſt breadth, 160 miles, and to contain 11,067,712 Iriſh plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of Engliſh ſtature meaſure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 159 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles. From the eaſt part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned 45 miles, but the paſſage between Donhagadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than twenty miles.

Name and divisions, ancient and modern. More conjectures as to the Latin (Hibernia) Iriſh (Erin) as well as the Engliſh name of this iſland, have been formed than the ſubject deſerves. It probably takes its riſe from a Phœnician or Gallic term, ſignifying the fartheſt habitation weſtward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the diviſions of Ireland; ſome dividing it into five circuits, and ſome into four provinces, thoſe of Leinſter, Ulſter, Connaught, and Munſter. I ſhall follow the laſt diviſion, as being the moſt common, and likewiſe the moſt antient.

	Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Leinſter, 12 Counties.	Dublin	Dublin
	Louth	Drogheda
	Wicklow	Wicklow
	Wexford	Wexford
	Longford	Longford
	East Meath	Trim
	Weſt Meath	Mullinger
	King's County	Phillipſtown
	Queen's County	Maryborough
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny
	Kildare	Kildare
	Carlow	Carlow
Ulſter, 9 Counties.	Down	Down
	Armagh	Charlemont
	Monaghan	Monaghan
	Cavan	Cavan
	Antrim	Carrickfergus
	Londonderry	Derry
	Tyrone	Omagh
	Fermanagh	Enniſkillen
	Donegall	Donegall

	Counties.	*Chief Towns.*
Connaught, 6 Count.	Leitrim	Leitrim
	Roſcommon	Roſcommon
	Mayo	Ballinrobe
	Sligo	Sligo
	Galway	Galway
	Clare	Ennis
Munſter, 5 Counties.	Cork	Cork
	Kerry	Tralee
	Limerick	Limerick
	Tipperary	Clonmel
	Waterford	Waterford.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL. The climate of Ireland, differs little from that of England, with which it would almoſt perfectly agree, were the ſoil equally improved. Uncultivated ſwamps, bogs, and foreſts, and uninhabited banks of rivers, naturally produce fogs and an unwholeſome thickneſs of air, as is the caſe with ſome parts of England itſelf: but upon the whole the air of the cultivated part of Ireland is as mild and ſalubrious, and as friendly to human nature as that of England; ſome have thought that it is even more ſo.

The ſoil of Ireland in general is fruitful, perhaps equal to that of England itſelf, when properly cultivated. Paſturage, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but till of late tillage was too much diſcountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in ſome of the northern parts of the kingdom abundance of hemp and flax are raiſed, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vaſt numbers of black cattle and ſheep. The Iriſh wool is excellent, but many have thought that the prohibition of exporting it to any other nation but England, is of detriment to both kingdoms, becauſe it encourages the inhabitants to ſmuggle it into France. The prodigious, and, indeed, incredible ſupplies of ſalt proviſions (fiſh excepted) ſhipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, are proofs ſcarcely to be exhibited in any other country, of the natural fertility of the Iriſh ſoil. As to the ſeaſons of Ireland, they differ little from thoſe of Great Britain, in the ſame latitude. I muſt not here forget that Ireland is remarkable for breeding and nouriſhing no venomous creatures.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES. Nor has nature been leſs favourable to Ireland in the numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, ſpacious bays, commodious havens, harbours and creeks, which enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon iſſuing from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, ſerves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and after a courſe of 150 miles, forming in its progreſs many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks ſpreading quite acroſs it, ſouth of Killaloe, but this might be remedied by a ſhort canal, at the expence of 10, or 12,000 l. and communications might alſo be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Colerain, the Boyne falls into St. George's channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffy at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a ſpa-

a ſpacious harbour. The Barrow, the Noer, and the Suir, water the ſouth part of the kingdom, and after uniting their ſtreams below Roſs, they fall into the channel at Waterford haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coaſt, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country, beyond any other in Europe, the beſt fitted for foreign commerce. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinſale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kilmare, Dingle, Shannonmouth, Galway, Sligoe, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

Ireland contains a vaſt number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulſter and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fiſh; and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Though thoſe loughs in the main have but few properties that are not common with the like bodies of water in other countries, yet they have given riſe to many traditionary accounts among the natives, which diſfigure and diſgrace their true hiſtory, and even modern geographers have been more copious on that head than either truth or the ſubject can admit of. The Iriſh are ſo fond of loughs, that, like the Scots, they often give that term to inlets of the ſea.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improveable, as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kingdom, one in particular reaching an extent of 60 miles, between the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic ocean. In ſurveying the grounds for this canal, however, it was found neceſſary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which from the ſpungy nature of that ſoil, became a work of incredible labour and expence, in ſtrengthening the ſides, and other works, to prevent falling in.

MOUNTAINS.] The Iriſh language has been more happy in diſtinguiſhing the ſize of mountains than perhaps any other. A knock ſignifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; a ſlieve marks a craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending and continued in ſeveral ridges; a bein or bin ſignifies a pinnacle or mountain of the firſt magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. The two laſt are often ſeen and compounded together in one and the ſame range. Ireland, however, when compared with ſome other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iſeah, in the county of Down, are reckoned among ſome of the higheſt in the kingdom, of which Slieu-Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular heighth of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous hiſtories that are annexed to ſome of them. Some of theſe mountains contain in their bowels beds of mines, minerals, coals, quarries of ſtone, ſlate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts in Ireland lie in Leinſter, the King's and Queen's counties, and thoſe of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulſter there are great foreſts, and in the county of Donegall and in the north part of Tyrone; alſo in the county of Fermanagh, along Loughlin Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is ſome good

good timber, and the oak is eſteemed as good as any of the Engliſh growth, and as fit for ſhip-building.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are late diſcoveries. Several contain ſilver and lead, and it is ſaid that 30 pounds of their lead ore produce a pound of ſilver; but the richeſt ſilver mine is at Wicklow. A copper and lead mine have been diſcovered at Tipperary, as likewiſe iron ore, and excellent free-ſtone for building. Some of the Iriſh marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red ſtriped with white. Quarries of fine ſlate are found in moſt counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little ſmoke, and it contains a chryſtalline ſtream which has no ſediment. Thoſe peculiarities, with the ſerenity of the air in that place, have given riſe to the well known proverb, That Kilkenny contains fire without ſmoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the ſame as in England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moſs, which are of vaſt ſervice for firing, where wood and coals are ſcarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland, but they are now almoſt exterminated by their wolf dogs, which are much larger than maſtiffs, ſhaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as ſpaniels. What I have already obſerved about the Iriſh exportation of ſalt proviſions, ſufficiently evinces the prodigious numbers of hogs, ſheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are ſaid to be more plentiful there than in England. The fiſh that are caught upon the coaſts of Ireland are likewiſe in greater plenty than on thoſe of England, and ſome of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] Ireland is ſaid to contain two millions and a half of inhabitants; but I ſuſpect that the calculation is over-charged by near half a million. As it is of great conſequence to aſcertain as near as poſſible the numbers of inhabitants of Ireland of both religions, we ſhall give them according to the beſt accounts, as they ſtood in the four provinces in 1733.

	Proteſtant families.			Popiſh families.
In Ulſter	62,620	—	—	38,459
Leinſter	25,238	—	—	92,424
Munſter	13,337	—	—	106,407
Connaught	4,299	—	—	44,133
	Total 105,494			Total 281,423

Which, at five to each family in the country, and ten for Dublin, and ſeven for Cork city, makes in all 2,015,229 ſouls. I am apt to think, when we conſider the waſte of war by ſea and land, and the vaſt emigrations of the Iriſh to Britain, the Britiſh colonies, and other nations; that the above calculation may nearly ſerve for the preſent times, though the balance of number is certainly greatly riſen on the ſide of proteſtantiſm; and in ſome late debates in the Iriſh parliament it has been aſſerted that the number of inhabitants of Ireland amount to three millions.

The old Iriſh, or, as they are termed by the proteſtants, the *mere Iriſh*, are generally repreſented as an ignorant, uncivilized, and blundering

dering ſort of people. Impatient of abuſe, and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections, but quick of apprehenſion, courteous to ſtrangers, and patient of hardſhips. Though in theſe reſpects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbariſms are more eaſy to be accounted for from accidental than natural cauſes. By far the greateſt number of them are papiſts, and it is the intereſt of their prieſts, who govern them with an abſolute ſway, to keep them in the moſt profound ignorance. They alſo lie under many legal diſabilities, which in their own country diſcourages the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the ſervice of foreign princes, they are diſtinguiſhed for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their ſurnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which ſignify grandſon and ſon: formerly the *O* was uſed by their chiefs only, or ſuch as piqued themſelves upon the antiquity of their families. Their muſic is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy ſtrain; though ſome of the lateſt airs are lively, and when ſung by an Iriſhman, extremely diverting. The old Iriſh is generally ſpoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where ſome of the old uncouth cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this cuſtom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their cuſtom of placing a dead corpſe before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of paſſengers, is practiſed even in the ſkirts of Dublin, which one could wiſh to ſee aboliſhed. And their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, dancing to the bagpipe, but more often quarrelling among themſelves, is offenſive to every ſtranger. But, as we have already obſerved, theſe cuſtoms are chiefly confined to the more unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught; the common people there having the leaſt ſenſe of law and government of any in Ireland, except their tyrannical landlords or leaſeholders, who ſqueze the poor without mercy. The common Iriſh, in their manner of living, ſeem to reſemble the antient Britons, as deſcribed by Roman authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabbins built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the ſame materials, ſerve the double purpoſes of accommodating the family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch pieces of furniture as are not in immediate uſe.

Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a horſe, ſome poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and ſometimes fiſh, conſtitute their food. For however plentifully the fields may be ſtocked with cattle, theſe poor natives ſeldom taſte butcher's meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robuſt, and hearty, ſcarcely know the uſe of cloaths, and are not aſhamed to gaze upon ſtrangers, or make their appearance upon the roads in that primitive manner.

In this idle and deplorable ſtate, many thouſands are in a manner loſt to the community and to themſelves, who, if they had an equal chance with their neighbours of being inſtructed in the real principles of Chriſtianity, inured and incouraged to induſtry and labour, and obedience to their ſovereign, would add conſiderable ſtrength to government. The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themſelves

themſelves of the uncomfortable ſituation of the Iriſh at home, by alluring them to enter their ſervice, and in this they have hitherto been aſſiſted by prieſts and jeſuits, whoſe intereſt it is to infuſe into the minds of their credulous diſciples an averſion to the Britiſh government; but we have now the pleaſing proſpect of a happy reformation among theſe people, from the numerous Engliſh proteſtant working ſchools, lately eſtabliſhed over the kingdom, which inſtitution will undoubtedly ſtrike deeper at the root of popery than all the endeavours of the Britiſh monarchs to reduce them.

The deſcendants of the Engliſh and Scots, ſince the conqueſt of Ireland by Henry II. though not the moſt numerous, form the wealthieſt part of the nation. Of theſe are moſt of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eaſtern and northern coaſts, where moſt of the trade of Ireland is carried on, eſpecially Belfaſt, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulſter, which, though the pooreſt ſoil, is, next to Dublin, and its neighbourhood, by far the beſt cultivated and moſt flouriſhing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots, in the reign of James I. and other preſbyterians, who fled from perſecution in that country in ſucceeding reigns, planted themſelves, and eſtabliſhed that great ſtaple of Iriſh wealth the linen manufactory, which they have ſince carried on and brought to the utmoſt perfection. From this ſhort review it appears that the preſent inhabitants are compoſed of three diſtinct claſſes of people; the old Iriſh, poor, ignorant, and depreſſed, who inhabit, or rather exiſt upon the interior and weſtern parts; the deſcendants of the Engliſh, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coaſt facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, ſcience, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive Chriſtianity. Thirdly, as I have already obſerved, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who like the others are ſo zealouſly attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require ſome ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are ſo thoroughly conſolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry and better ſort of the Iriſh nation in general differ little in language, dreſs, manners and cuſtoms, from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hoſpitality is well known, but in this they are ſometimes ſuſpected of more oſtentation than real friendſhip.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion and eccleſiaſtical diſcipline of Ireland is the ſame with that of England. I have already obſerved, that among the bulk of the people, in the moſt uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the moſt abſurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Iriſh papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops and dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind ſubmiſſions of the latter to their clergy, does not prevent proteſtantiſm from making a very rapid progreſs there in towns and communities. Great efforts have been made ever ſince the days of James I. in erecting free-ſchools for civilizing and converting the Iriſh papiſts. The inſtitution of the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh proteſtant working-ſchools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have many inſtitutions of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and knowledge among the Iriſh; and no country in the world can ſhew greater public ſpirited efforts than have been made by the government of Ireland, ſince that time, for theſe purpoſes. How far it may be the intereſt

of

of England that ſome kind of balance between the two religions ſhould be kept up, I ſhall not here enquire.

Ireland contains at leaſt as many ſectaries as England, particularly preſbyterians, anabaptiſts, quakers, and methodiſts, who are all of them connived at and tolerated.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are four, Armagh, Dublin, Tuam, and Caſhell.

The biſhops are 18, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limmeric, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, Waterford, Kilmore, and Killala.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Iriſh is fundamentally the ſame with the Britiſh and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made uſe of by the Scotch Highlanders, oppoſite the Iriſh coaſts. It is, however, in a great meaſure defaced by provincial alterations, but not ſo altered as to render the Iriſh, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The uſage of the Iriſh language occaſions among the common people, who ſpeak both that and the Engliſh, a diſagreeable tone in ſpeaking, which diffuſes itſelf among the vulgar in general, and even among the better ſort who do not underſtand Iriſh. It is probable, however, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] If we are to believe the fabulous accounts of Ireland, learning flouriſhed there while ſhe was dormant in all the other parts of the globe. The truth is, that the Iriſh writers, in ſeveral branches of learning, arts, and ſciences, are equal to thoſe of their neighbours. Archbiſhop Uſher does honour to literature itſelf. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and ſatire. The ſprightlineſs of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama: and to particularize other Iriſh writers of learning and genius, many of whom are living at this day, would far exceed my bounds.

UNIVERSITIES.] Ireland contains but one univerſity (if a college can be called ſuch) which is that of Dublin, founded by queen Elizabeth, under the title of the College of the holy and undivided Trinity, near Dublin, with a power of conferring degrees of batchelors, maſters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. At preſent it conſiſts of a provoſt, ſeven ſenior, thirteen junior fellows, and ſeventy ſcholars of the houſe, who have maintenance upon the foundation. The viſitors are the chancellor, or vice chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] I have already mentioned the wolf-dogs in Ireland, and her exemption from all venomous animals. The Iriſh goſ-hawks and gerfalcons are celebrated for their ſhape and beauty. The mooſe-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this iſland, their horns being ſometimes dug up of ſo great a ſize, that one pair has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greateſt natural curioſity in Ireland is the Giant's Cauſeway in the county of Antrim, about 8 miles from Colerain, which is thus deſcribed by Dr. Pococke, late Biſhop of Oſſory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He ſays, "that he meaſured the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet further upon a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and ſaw

as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is like that loſt in the water.

" The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from 3 ſides to 8. The eaſtern point where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are 33 feet 4 inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from 6 inches to about a foot in thickneſs; and what is very ſurprizing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about 40 joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

" But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity, the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurprizing. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about 60 feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſembles a cement about 4 inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum 5 inches thick of the red. Over this is another ſtratum ten feet thick divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone 20 feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone, 20 feet high; and, above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliffs extends about 3 Engliſh miles."

The cavities, the romantic proſpects, cataracts, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities, and ſeveral pamphlets have been employed in deſcribing them. As to the artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or ſtone towers, found upon the coaſts, and ſuppoſed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians, who made uſe of them as ſpy-towers or barbicans, light-houſes or beacons.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is in magnitude and the number of inhabitants, the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions; much about the ſize of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marſeilles, and is ſuppoſed to contain near 300,000 inhabitants. It is ſituated 270 miles north-weſt of London, and 60 miles weſt from Holyhead, in North Wales, the uſual ſtation of the paſſage veſſels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin ſtands about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both ſides, which form ſpacious quays, where veſſels below the firſt bridge load and unload before the merchants doors and warehouſes. A ſtranger upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about 7 miles broad, and in ſtormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably ſurprized with the beautiful proſpect on each ſide, and the diſtant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low ſituation, makes no great appearance. The increaſe of Dublin, within 20 years laſt paſt, is incredible, and it is generally ſuppoſed that 4000 houſes have been added

added to the city and ſuburbs ſince the reign of queen Anne. This city in its appearance bears a near reſemblance to London. The houſes are of brick; the old ſtreets are narrow and mean, but the new ſtreets are more elegant and better planned than thoſe of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville ſtreet, which is ſometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole at an equal diſtance from the ſides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for ſea veſſels as far as the cuſtom-houſe, or centre of the city, is but ſmall, when compared to the Thames at London. Over it are two handſome bridges, lately built of ſtone, in imitation of that at Weſtminſter, and three others that have little to recommend them. Hitherto the centre of Dublin towards the cuſtom-houſe was crouded and inconvenient for commercial purpoſes; but of late a new ſtreet has been opened, leading from Eſſex bridge to the caſtle, where the lord lieutenant reſides. A new exchange is building, the firſt ſtone of which was laid by lord Townſhend, the then lord lieutenant, and ſeveral other uſeful undertakings and embelliſhments are in agitation.

The barracks are pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence near the river. They conſiſt of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horſe; from hence the caſtle and city guards are relieved daily. They are ſaid to be the largeſt and compleateſt building of the kind in Europe.

The linen hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for ſale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are compoſed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbiſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national inſtitution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds which otherwiſe would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thouſands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stevens Green is a moſt extenſive ſquare, being one mile in circumference. It is partly laid out in gravel walks, like St. James's Park, with trees on each ſide, in which may be ſeen, in fine weather, a reſort of as much beauty, gaiety, and finery, as at any of the public places in England. Many of the houſes round the green are very ſtately, but a want of uniformity is obſervable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another ſpacious ſquare near Stevens Green, now laid out and partly built. The houſes being lofty, uniform, and carried on with ſtone as far as the firſt floor, will give the whole an air of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath.

The front of Trinity college, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland ſtone in the fineſt taſte.

The parliament houſe was begun in 1729, and finiſhed in 1739, at the expence of 40,000 l. This ſuperb pile is in general of the Ionic order, and is at this day juſtly accounted one of the foremoſt architectural beauties. The portico in particular is, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts have alſo many beauties, and the manner in which the building is lighted, has been much admired. But one of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings that this age can boaſt of, is the building a ſtone wall about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, a proportionable height, and three miles in length,

length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord mayor, &c. the ſame as in London. Every third year, the lord mayor, and the 24 companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the Franchiſes. Upon this occaſion the citizens vie with each other, in ſhow and oſtentation, which is ſometimes productive of diſagreeable conſequences to many of their families. In Dublin are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſe in London. In this city are 18 pariſh churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French, and 1 for Dutch Proteſtants, 7 preſbyterian meeting-houſes, 1 for methodiſts, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman catholic chapels. A royal hoſpital like that at Chelſea, for invalids; a lying-in hoſpital, with gardens, built and laid out in the fineſt taſte; an hoſpital for lunaticks, built by the famous dean Swift, who himſelf died a lunatic; and ſundry other hoſpitals for patients of every kind. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding in a more elegant manner. And indeed whatever way a ſtranger turns himſelf in this city, he will perceive a ſpirit of elegance and magnificence; and if he extends his view over the whole kingdom, he will conclude that works of ornament and public utility in Ireland, keep pace with thoſe erecting, great as they are, over the different parts of Great Britain. For it muſt be acknowledged that no nation in Europe, comparatively ſpeaking, has expended ſuch ſums as the grants of the Iriſh parliament, which has been, and continues to be, the life and ſoul of whatever is carried on; witneſs the many noble erections, churches, hoſpitals, bridges; the forming of harbours, public roads, canals, and other public and private undertakings.

It has, however, been matter of ſurprize, that with all this ſpirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland, In the capital, which may be claſſed among the ſecond order of cities of Europe, there is not one inn that deſerves that name. This may, in ſome meaſure, be accounted for by the long, and ſometimes dangerous paſſage from Cheſter and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from viſiting that iſland; but as it is now propoſed to make turnpike roads to Portpatrick in Scotland, from whence the paſſage is ſhort and ſafe, the roads of Ireland may by this means become more frequented, eſpecially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets with views the moſt luxuriant and rich, he is ſometimes cloyed with a ſameneſs that runs through the whole: but in thoſe countries of North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whoſe tops look down upon the clouds, the extenſive lakes, enriched with buſhy iſlands, the cavities, glens, cataracts, the numerous feathered creation, hopping from cliff to cliff, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects that frequently preſent themſelves in various forms and ſhapes, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination, and are pleaſing to the fancy of every admirer of nature, however rough or unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deſervedly reckoned the ſecond city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles ſouth weſt of Dublin, and contains above 8100 houſes, inhabited chiefly by proteſtants. Its haven is deep and well ſheltered from all winds; but ſmall veſſels only come up to its quay, and

ſtand about 7 miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter ſhipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great reſort of ſhips to this port, particularly of thoſe bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee iſlands, which put in here to victual and compiete their lading. Kinſale is a populous and ſtrong town, with an excellent harbour, and conſiderable commerce and ſhipping: and it is, moreover, occaſionally a ſtation for the navy royal; for which end this port is furniſhed with proper naval officers and ſtore-keepers. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and ſhipping. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the weſt ſide of the town is a citadel. Limeric is a handſome, populous, commercial, ſtrong city, and lies on both ſides the Shannon.

Belfaſt is a large ſeaport and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen water, where it falls into Carrickfergus bay. Downpatrick has a flouriſhing linen manufacture Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus) is by ſome deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and caſtle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is moſt uſually called) ſtands on Lough-Foyl, is a ſtrong little city, having ſome linen manufactures, with ſome commerce and ſhipping. All this extreme north part of Ireland is ſituated ſo near to Scotland, that they are in ſight of each others coaſts. Donegal, the county-town of the ſame name (otherwiſe called the county of Tyrconnel) is a place of ſome trade; as is likewiſe Enniſkilling. All which laſt mentioned places, and many more (though leſs conſiderable ones) are chiefly and moſt induſtriouſly employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen thread, to the great benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vaſt annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewiſe to render the money conſtantly drawn from Ireland into England by her abſentees, leſs grievous to her.

Though Ireland contains no ſtrong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has ſeveral forts and garriſons, that ſerve as comfortable ſinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry and Culmore fort, Cork, Limeric, Kinſale, Duncannon, Roſs-Caſtle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of theſe forts is furniſhed with deputy governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary proviſions from the government.

It cannot be pretended that Ireland is as yet furniſhed with many public edifices, that can compare with thoſe that are to be found in countries where ſovereigns and their courts reſide, but it has many elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taſte and public ſpirit of the inhabitants. The parliament houſe, caſtle, Eſſex-bridge, and ſeveral edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent, and elegant pieces of architecture, and many noble Gothic churches, and other buildings, are to be ſeen in Ireland. The Iriſh nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with thoſe of England in the magnificent ſtructure of their houſes, and the elegance of their ornaments; but it would be unjuſt, where there are ſo many equal in taſte and magnificence, to particularize any. In ſpeaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I muſt not forget the numerous barracks, where the ſoldiers are lodged, equally to the eaſe and conveniency of the inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] What I have ſaid of England under this head, is in a great meaſure applicable to Ireland. Her chief exports conſiſt of linen-cloth, yarn, lawns and cambrics, which are encouraged by the Engliſh government. Wool and bay yarn are by law allowed to be exported to England only, but great quantities of both are ſmuggled into other countries. The other exports are horſes and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, ſome tanned leather, calf ſkins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheeſe, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horſe-hair, lead, in no great proportion, copper-ore, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbit-ſkins, and furr, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, ſalmon, and a few other particulars.

The Iriſh in general complain of the vaſt diſadvantages under which their country lies, from that prohibition which does not ſuffer them to cultivate to the full their woollen and iron manufactures, or to make the beſt of their natural ſituation and harbours. They even complain that the benefits of their linen manufacture are now greatly abridged by the vaſt progreſs made in the ſame by the Scots, and repeated attempts have been made to prove that their commercial diſcouragements are detrimental to England herſelf, and beneficial to her natural enemies. Whatever truth there may be in this complaint, it is certain that the Iriſh have carried their inland manufactures, even thoſe of luxury, to an amazing height, and that their lords lieutenants, and their court, have of late encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, making uſe of no other.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe I know none in Ireland, as the bankers cannot be admitted as ſuch; neither can the Dublin ſociety for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, which was incorporated in 1750. The linen hall, however, that is erected at Dublin, is under as juſt and nice regulations as any commercial houſe in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland is ſtill a diſtinct, though a dependent ſubordinate kingdom. It was only entitled the dominion or lordſhip of Ireland, and the king's ſtile was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, Lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he aſſumed the title of king, which is recognized by act of parliament in the ſame reign. But as England and Scotland are now one and the ſame kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; ſo England and Ireland are, on the other hand, diſtinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws. For after the conqueſt of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and ſworn to by the Iriſh nation, aſſembled at the council of Liſmore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, ſtill continues in a ſtate of dependence, it muſt neceſſarily conform to, and be obliged by ſuch laws as the ſuperior ſtate thinks proper to preſcribe.

But this ſtate of dependence being almoſt forgotten, and ready to be diſputed by the Iriſh nation, it became neceſſary, ſome years ago, to declare how that matter really ſtood: and, therefore, by ſtatute 6th of George I. it is declared, that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inſeparably united thereto; and that the king's majeſty, with the conſent of the lords and commons of Great Britain, in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland.

The conſtitution of the Iriſh government, as it ſtands at preſent, with regard to diſtributive juſtice, is nearly the ſame with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord lieutenant, is

ſent over from England by the king, whom he repreſents, but his power is in ſome meaſure reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleaſure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publickly read in the council-chamber, and having taken the uſual oaths before the lord chancellor, the ſword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſerjeant at mace, and other officers of ſtate; and he never appears publickly without being attended by a body of horſe-guards. Hence, with reſpect to his authority, his train and ſplendor, there is no viceroy in Chriſtendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majeſty of a king. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archbiſhops, earls, biſhops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the ſupreme court, which is convened by the king's writ; and generally ſits once every ſecond year. It conſiſts, as in England, of a houſe of lords and commons. Of the former, many are Engliſh or Britiſh peers or commons of Great Britain; a few are papiſts, who cannot ſit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amount to about 300. Since the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, Iriſh parliaments have been rendered octennial. The laws are made by the houſe of lords and commons, after which they are ſent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by his majeſty and council, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned.

For the regular diſtribution of juſtice, there are alſo in Ireland four terms held annually for the deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice, the chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high-ſheriffs of the ſeveral counties were formerly choſen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord lieutenant. From this general view it appears that the civil and eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions are almoſt the ſame in Ireland as in England.

Revenues.] In Ireland the public revenue ariſes from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the truſtee, for applying it to particular purpoſes; but there is beſides this a private revenue ariſing from the ancient demeſne lands, from forfeitures for treaſon and felony, priſage of wines, light-houſe duties, and a ſmall part of the caſual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the ſame unlimited property that a ſubject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a ſecret to the public.

The public revenue of Ireland is ſuppoſed at preſent to exceed half a million ſterling, of which the Iriſh complain greatly that about 70,000 l. is granted in penſions, and a great part to abſentees. Very large ſums are alſo granted by their own parliament for more valuable purpoſes, the improvement of their country and civilizing the people, ſuch as the inland navigation, bridges, highways, churches, premiums, proteſtant ſchools, and other particulars, which do honour to the wiſdom and patriotiſm of that parliament.

And it is alſo a happy circumſtance for the Iriſh, that the revenues neceſſary for the ſupport of their government, and other purpoſes, are raiſed with ſo much eaſe as to be ſcarcely felt by the people. Their lands are not ſaddled with heavy taxes, nor their trade with foreign nations cramped by innumerable duties. Hence the amazing low price

price of almoſt every article of general conſumption. Good claret wine is ſold in the metropolis of the kingdom at two ſhillings a bottle, and other liquors proportionably cheap. Butcher's meat, though now on the riſe, is ſold at two pence per pound, turkies at twenty pence, and other poultry at a trifling expence. Soap and candles are ſo low as to tempt coaſting veſſels to ſmuggle them into Britain. In the interior parts, butcher's meat is ſold at one penny farthing per pound; large fowls at three pence each. And that the taxation upon inland trade ſits eaſy, appears from the cheapneſs of almoſt every article fabricated there. Newſpapers of a large ſize are ſold at a halfpenny, and advertiſements of a moderate length are inſerted for ſixpence. Such was the happy ſituation of Great Britain before the commencement of that load of debt, contracted in conſequence of our foreign connections, and fruitleſs campaigns in Germany and Flanders.

COINS.] What the antient coins of the Iriſh were, is now a matter of mere curioſity and great uncertainty. At preſent the coins of Ireland are the ſame with thoſe of England, (the Iriſh having no mint) but they differ in their denomination, an Engliſh ſhilling paſſing in Ireland for thirteen pence, and ſo of the other Engliſh coins. See the table of coins at the end of this book.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Thoſe parts of Ireland that are moſt uncultivated, contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little ſenſe either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are abſolutely neceſſary for keeping them in order, witneſs the late inſurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, who were inſtigated by their prieſts. For theſe and other purpoſes 16,000 Britiſh troops are generally quartered in Ireland, where they are maintained and paid upon the Iriſh eſtabliſhment. It does not, however, appear that the bulk of the Iriſh catholics are fond of a revolution in government, as few or none of them joined Thurot in his deſcent upon Carrickfergus, or took any part with the pretender in the laſt rebellion.

HISTORY.] The Iriſh monks have formed a more regular plan of antient hiſtory, for their own country, than is to be met with in other countries, and with ſuch plauſibility, that it has been adopted by men of conſiderable learning. They have carried up a ſucceſſion of great, wiſe, and learned kings, almoſt to the time of the flood, and they have made Ireland flouriſh in all the arts and ſciences, eſpecially thoſe of government, long before they were known in Egypt, or Greece. Writers, however, after the Auguſtan age, have mentioned the Iriſh, as being no better than ſavages, and the moſt credible of the modern hiſtorians, ſpeak of them as being, in the beginning of the 15th century, a nation of barbarians, though it may be admitted that before this period, ſome of their monks and clergy, who had travelled into other parts of Europe, were holy and learned men.

That the northern parts of Ireland were peopled from the weſt of Scotland, as being a far more inviting ſoil, is more than probable, and it is likely that emigrations from other parts of Europe, might mingle with the aboriginal Iriſh; but hiſtory gives us no ſure lights, as to thoſe matters. Sir James Ware, the beſt of the Iriſh antiquaries, and a man of great learning and candour, ſpeaks with high contempt of the Iriſh, before they were converted to Chriſtianity, by St. Patric, a Scotchman, who died in 493. After this they were occaſionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England, but in the year 795 and 798 the Danes and Normans, or as they were called the Eaſterlings, invaded the coaſts of

Ireland, and were the firſt who erected ſtone edifices in that kingdom. The habitations of the Iriſh, till that time, were of hurdles covered with ſtraw and ruſhes, and a very few of ſolid timber. The natives, however, defended themſelves bravely againſt the Eaſterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford and Cork, but they reſided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Iriſh, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, ſeem to have called to their aſſiſtance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a conſiderable maritime power, and this might have given occaſion for his clergy to call him King of great part of Ireland. It is certain, that Dublin was about that time a flouriſhing city, and that the native Iriſh gave the Eaſterlings ſeveral defeats, though ſupported by their countrymen from the continent, the Iſle of Man, and the Hebrides.

Though the uſe of letters had been by this time introduced into Ireland, yet its hiſtory is ſtill very confuſed. We know, however, that it was divided among ſeveral petty princes, and that Henry II. of England, provoked at their piracies, and their aſſiſting his enemies, by the inſtigation of the Pope, had reſolved to ſubdue them. A fair pretext offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinſter, an oppreſſive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O Roirk. A confederacy being formed againſt him, under Roderic O'Connor, (who it ſeems was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven from his country, and took refuge at the court of Henry II. who promiſed to reſtore him upon taking an oath of fealty to the crown of England for himſelf, and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Dermot's caſe to the Engliſh barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz Stephen, and Maurice Fitz Gerald. Theſe noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the ſame principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conqueſt of England under William I. and Strongbow was to marry Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strongbow arriving with a ſtrong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The deſcendants of the Danes continued ſtill poſſeſſed of Dublin, which, after ſome ineffectual oppoſition made by king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the Engliſh ſoldiers, but Mac Turkil, the Daniſh king, eſcaped to his ſhipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, ſeized upon his eſtates in England and Wales, and recalled his ſubjects from Ireland. The Iriſh, about the ſame time, to the amount of about 60,000, beſieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Iriſh friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Iriſh to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs, and going over to England he appeaſed Henry by ſwearing fealty to him and his heirs, and reſigning into his hands all the Iriſh cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's abſence, Mac Turkil returning with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the ſiege; and in him ended the race of the Eaſterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran ſoldiers, and the flower of his Engliſh nobility, landed near Waterford, and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulſter

Ulſter, but the great king Roderic O'Connor, ſubmitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's ſubmiſſion included that of Ulſter, and that conſequently he was the paramount ſovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the eſtates of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his Engliſh nobility. He then ſettled a civil adminiſtration at Dublin, as near as poſſible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having firſt ſettled an Engliſh colony from Briſtol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free cuſtoms, ſays their charters, which the citizens of Briſtol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flouriſh. Thus the conqueſt of Ireland was effected by the Engliſh almoſt with as much eaſe as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards, and for much the ſame reaſons, the rude and unarmed ſtate of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of Lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who, in 1185, went over in perſon to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill uſe of their power, and rendered themſelves hateful to the Iriſh, who were otherwiſe very well diſpoſed towards the Engliſh. Richard I. was too much taken up with the cruſades to pay much regard to the affairs of Ireland, but king John, after his acceſſion, made amends for his former behaviour towards the Iriſh. He enlarged his father's plan, of introducing into Ireland Engliſh laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter which was within the Engliſh pale, into twelve counties. I find, however, that the deſcendants of the antient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal ſubjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exerciſed all acts of ſovereignty within their own ſtates; and indeed this was pretty much the caſe ſo late as the reign of James I. The unſettled reign of Henry III. his wars, and captivity, gave the Iriſh a very mean opinion of the Engliſh government during his reign; but they ſeem to have continued quiet under his ſon Edward I. Gaveſton, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland, but the ſucceſſes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almoſt proved fatal to the Engliſh intereſt in Ireland, and ſuggeſted to the Iriſh the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the Engliſh governors and armies, and being ſupported by his brother in perſon, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly miſſed being maſter of Dublin. The younger Bruce ſeems to have been violent in the exerciſe of his ſovereignty, and he was at laſt defeated and killed by Bermingham the Engliſh general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and paſſed ſeveral excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not ſuppreſſed without great loſs and diſgrace on the ſide of the Engliſh. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the Engliſh inhabitants had no inconſiderable ſhare. A ſucceſſion of vigorous, brave governors, however, at laſt quieted the inſurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, ſon to Edward III. having married the heireſs of Ulſter, was ſent over to govern Ireland, and, if poſſible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws

of England. In this he made a great progreſs, but did not entirely accompliſh it. It appears, at this time, that the Iriſh were in a very flouriſhing condition, and that one of the greateſt grievances they complained of was, that the Engliſh ſent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his deſpotic ſchemes in England muſt be abortive without farther ſupport, paſſed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men well armed and appointed. As he made no uſe of force, the Iriſh looked upon his preſence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and beſtowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In ſhort, he behaved ſo as to entirely win their affections. In 1399, Richard being then deſpotic in England, undertook a freſh expedition into Ireland to revenge the death of his lord lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Iriſh. His army again ſtruck the natives with conſternation, and they threw themſelves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition that the duke of Lancaſter landed in England, and Richard upon his return finding himſelf deſerted, and that he could not depend upon the Iriſh, ſurrendered his crown to his rival.

The Iriſh, after Richard's death, ſtill retained a warm affection for the houſe of York, and upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cauſe. Even the acceſſion of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile them to his title, as duke of Lancaſter, and the Iriſh readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the young earl of Warwick, ſon to the duke of Clarence, but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them ſomewhat cautious at firſt of joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithſtanding his plauſible pretences to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon of Edward IV. He was, however, at laſt recognized as king by the Iriſh, and in the preceding pages the reader may learn the event of his hiſtory. Henry, however, behaved with moderation towards his favourers, and was contented with requiring the Iriſh nobility to take a freſh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the deſired effect, during the adminiſtration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by ſupporting its chiefs againſt each other, but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural ſon, the duke of Richmond, his lord lieutenant. This did not prevent the Iriſh from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and who was won over by the emperor, but was at laſt hanged at Tyburn. After this, the houſe of Auſtria found their account, in their quarrels with England, to form a ſtrong party among the Iriſh.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed ſome pretenſions on the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a ſtrong party among the Iriſh themſelves. It is hard to ſay, had he lived, what the conſequence of his claim might have been. Henry underſtood that the Iriſh had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto aſſumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Iriſh, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and to ſpeak the truth, it was ſomewhat ſurprizing that this expedient was not

thought

thought of before. It produced a more perfect ſubmiſſion of the native Iriſh to Henry's government than ever had been known, and even O Neil, who pretended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The pope, however, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, by remitting money, and ſometimes ſending over troops to the Iriſh, ſtill kept up their intereſt in that kingdom, and drew from them vaſt numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good ſoldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpreſſible difficulties to the Engliſh government, even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable that the reformation took place in the Engliſh part of Ireland with little or no oppoſition. The Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary, but they proved thorns in the ſide of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual diſputes ſhe had with the Roman Catholics both at home and abroad, gave her great uneaſineſs, and the Pope, and the houſe of Auſtria always found new reſources againſt her in Ireland. The Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of Kinſale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Eſſex, are well known in the Engliſh hiſtory.

The lord-deputy Mountjoy, who ſucceeded Eſſex, was the firſt Engliſhman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Iriſh before Kinſale, and bringing Tyrone priſoner to England, where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, ſhewn to ſuch an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehenſions Elizabeth had from the popiſh intereſt in Ireland. James I. confirmed the poſſeſſions of the Iriſh; but ſuch was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to ſeize the caſtle of Dublin; but their plot being diſcovered, their chiefs fled beyond ſeas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608, they inſtigated Sir Calim O'Dogharty to a freſh rebellion, by promiſing him ſpeedy ſupplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the diſpute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Iriſh rebels which paſſed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, veſted in the crown 511,465 acres, in the ſeveral counties of Donnegal, Tyrone, Coleraine, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that proteſtant plantation in the north of Ireland, which now, from the moſt rebellious province of the kingdom, is the moſt quiet and reformed.

Thoſe prodigious attainders, however juſt and neceſſary they might be, operated fatally for the Engliſh in the reign of Charles I. The Iriſh Roman-catholics in general, were influenced by their prieſts to hope not only to repoſſeſs the lands of their forefathers, but to reſtore the popiſh religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and deteſtable conſpiracy for maſſacring all the Engliſh proteſtants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy diſſentions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being diſcovered by the Engliſh government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They however partly executed, in 1641, their horrid ſcheme of maſſacre: but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm proteſtant writers, ſome of whom have

mounted

mounted the number of the ſufferers to 40,000; other accounts ſpeak of 10,000 or 12,000, and ſome have even diminiſhed that number. What followed in conſequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Iriſh papiſts upon themſelves, belongs to the hiſtory of England. It is certain that they ſmarted ſo ſeverely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popiſh ſucceſſor and brother, even after the Revolution took place, found an aſylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that by the aſſiſtance of the natives there, he might remount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own puſillanimity co-operated with his diſappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his ſon-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that William ever gained in perſon. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undiſciplined rabble, but his French auxiliaries were far from behaving as heroes. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that he left both the field and the kingdom too ſoon for a brave man. The forfeitures that fell to the crown on account of the Iriſh rebellions and the Revolution, are almoſt incredible; and had the acts of parliament which gave them away been ſtrictly enforced, Ireland muſt have been peopled with Britiſh inhabitants. But many political reaſons occurred for not driving the Iriſh to deſpair. The friends of the revolution and the proteſtant religion were ſufficiently gratified out of the forfeited eſtates. Too many of the Roman-catholics might have been forced abroad; and it was proper that a due balance ſhould be preſerved between the Roman-catholic and the proteſtant intereſt.

It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorouſly into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wiſdom of the above conſiderations. The lenity of the meaſures purſued in regard to the Iriſh Roman-catholics, and the great pains taken for the inſtruction of their children, with the progreſs which knowledge and the arts have made in that country, have diminiſhed the popiſh intereſt ſo much, that the Iriſh proteſtants have of late diſputed many points of their dependency. The ſpirit of induſtry has enabled the Iriſh to know their own ſtrength and importance, to which ſome accidental circumſtances have concurred. All her ports are now opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great-Britain. And of late years acts of parliament have been made occaſionally for permitting the importation of ſalt beef, pork, butter, cattle, and tallow, from Ireland to Great-Britain.

How far the late act for rendering parliaments in Ireland octennial* may operate to its benefit, is as yet impoſſible to be determined: in all appearance, it will create a very material alteration in the civil policy of that kingdom, and will prove to be by no means for the benefit of that independency upon England which is ſo much the idol of the Iriſh patriots. It is likewiſe to be apprehended, that the octennial returns of general elections, may have a fatal effect upon the morals of the labouring people, as is too often ſeen in England, where induſtry flouriſhes moſt in thoſe places (witneſs Mancheſter, Birmingham, and Sheffield) which ſend no member to the Britiſh parliament.

I might

* Before this act took place, members, once choſen, ſat in the houſe of commons during life; ſo that there were no new parliaments, except upon the acceſſion of the prince to the throne.

I might here conclude the geography and hiſtory of Great-Britain and Ireland, were it not that ſeveral ſmaller iſlands are under the allegiance of the crown of England, and having local privileges and diſtinctions, could not be comprehended under a more general head. In treating of them therefore I ſhall deviate from my common method, but obſerve brevity as much as the ſubject will permit.

ISLE OF MAN.

THIS is not the Mona mentioned by Tacitus. Some think that it takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among) becauſe lying in St. George's Channel, it is at an equal diſtance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona ſeems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached iſland. Its length from north to ſouth is about thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the iſland is fifty-four degrees, ſixteen minutes, north. It is ſaid, that on a clear day, the three Britannic kingdoms may be ſeen from this iſland. The air here is wholeſome, and the climate, only making allowance for the ſituation, pretty much the ſame as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other reſpects. The hilly parts are barren and the champain fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulſe. The ridge of mountains which as it were divides the iſland, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good paſturage. The better ſort of inhabitants have good ſizeable horſes, and a ſmall kind, which is ſwift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coaſts abound with ſea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almoſt a lump of fat, and eſteemed very delicious. It is ſaid that this iſland abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought, as are the quarries of marble, ſlate, and ſtone.

The Iſle of Man contains ſeventeen pariſhes and four towns on the ſea coaſts. Caſtle-town is the metropolis of the iſland, and the ſeat of its government; Peele, which, of late years, begins to flouriſh; Douglas, which has the beſt market and beſt trade in the iſland, as well as the richeſt and moſt populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the ſea; Ramſey has likewiſe a conſiderable commerce, on account of its ſpacious bay, in which ſhips may ride ſafe from all winds excepting the north-eaſt. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may ſee how conveniently this iſland is ſituated for being the ſtorehouſe of ſmugglers, which it was till within theſe few years, to the inexpreſſible prejudice of his majeſty's revenue; and this neceſſarily leads me to touch upon the hiſtory of the iſland.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the ſeas which I have before mentioned, this iſland was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected, from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great-Britain and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in hiſtory; and though we have no regular account of their ſucceſſion, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for ſome ages maſters of thoſe ſeas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a ſpirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the ſuperiority of Man, and obliged Owen, or John, its king, to acknowledge

ledge him as lord paramount. It ſeems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exerciſed the ſuperiority over the iſland; though we find it ſtill poſſeſſed by the poſterity of its Daniſh princes, in the reign of Edward III. who diſpoſſeſſed the laſt queen of the iſland, and beſtowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Saliſbury. His family being forfeited, Henry IV. beſtowed Man, and the patronage of the biſhopric, firſt upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon Sir John Stanley, whoſe poſterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſter of the laſt lord Derby. Reaſons of ſtate rendered it neceſſary for the crown of Great Britain to purchaſe the cuſtoms and the iſland from the Athol family, and the bargain was completed, by 70,000 l. being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the iſland, though the form of its government is altered, and the king has now the ſame rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the dukes formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, alſo, retain many of their antient conſtitutions and cuſtoms.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Man is that of the church of England. The king has now the nomination of the biſhop, who is called biſhop of Sodor and Man; and he enjoys all the ſpiritual rights and pre-eminences of other biſhops, but does not ſit in the Britiſh houſe of peers, his ſee never having been erected into an Engliſh barony. The eccleſiaſtical government is well kept up in this iſland, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is ſpoken by the common people, is radically Erſe, or Iriſh, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Teſtament and Common Prayer Book have been tranſlated into the Manks language. The natives, who are ſaid to amount to above 20,000, are inoffenſive, charitable, and hoſpitable. The better ſort live in ſtone houſes, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation conſiſt of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign ſhipping for commodities they may have occaſion for from other parts. Before the ſouth promontory of Man, is a little iſland called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and ſeparated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This iſland affords ſome curioſities which may amuſe an antiquary. They conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions and monuments of antient braſs daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are ſometimes dug up, and ſeem to indicate the ſplendor of its antient poſſeſſors.

I forbear to mention in this place the iſles of ANGLESEY and WIGHT, the firſt being annexed to Wales, and the other to Hampſhire. Alſo the SCILLY ISLES, or rather a cluſter of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part.

In the Engliſh channel are four iſlands ſubject to England; theſe are Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coaſt of Normandy than to that of England, are within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. They lie in a cluſter in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape Ja Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed diſtance between Jerſey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernſey, ſeven leagues; and between the ſame and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY was known to the Romans; and lies fartheſt within the bay, in 49 degrees, 7 minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree 26 minutes weſt longitude, 18 miles weſt of Normandy. The north ſide is inacceſſible through lofty cliffs, the ſouth is almoſt level with the water; the higher land in its midland part is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and ſheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of ſtockings. The honey in Jerſey is remarkably fine; and the iſland is well ſupplied with fiſh and wild-fowl almoſt of every kind, ſome of both being peculiar to the iſland, and very delicious.

The iſland is not above twelve miles in length, but the air is ſo ſalubrious, that in Camden's time, it was ſaid there was here no buſineſs for a phyſician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve pariſhes. The capital town is St. Helier, which contains above 400 houſes, and makes a handſome appearance. The property of this iſland belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal intereſt, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the Britiſh dominions durſt recognize him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which moſt of them intermingle Engliſh words. Knit ſtockings and caps form their ſtaple commodity, but they carry on a conſiderable trade in fiſh with Newfoundland, and diſpoſe of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil adminiſtration reſts with a bailiff, aſſiſted by twelve jurats. As this iſland is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preſerves the old feudal forms, and particularly the aſſembly of ſtates, which is as it were a miniature of the Britiſh parliament, as ſettled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half where broadeſt, eaſt and weſt; but has only ten pariſhes, to which there are but eight miniſters, four of the pariſhes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernſey, having one a-piece. Tho' this is a much finer iſland than that of Jerſey, yet it is far leſs valuable, becauſe it is not ſo well cultivated, nor is it ſo populous. It abounds in cyder; and the inhabitants ſpeak French: but want of firing is the greateſt inconveniency that both iſlands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old-Caſtle, the other Caſtle-Cornet. Guernſey is likewiſe part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compaſs, and is by much the neareſt of all theſe iſlands to Normandy, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow frait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous paſſage in ſtormy weather, when the two currents meet, otherwiſe it is ſafe, and has depth of water for the largeſt ſhips. This iſland is healthy, and the ſoil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a ſmall iſland depending upon Guernſey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniencies of life. The inhabitants of the three laſt mentioned iſlands are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four iſlands is that of the church of England, though formerly the inhabitants were Calviniſts.

FRANCE.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600	between	5 weſt and 8 eaſt long.
Breadth 500		42 and 51 north lat.

Boundaries.] HAVING gone over the Britiſh iſles, we ſhall now return to the continent, beginning with the extenſive and mighty kingdom of France, being the neareſt to England; though the Netherlands and part of Germany lie to the northward of France. It is bounded by the Engliſh channel and the Netherlands, on the north; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, eaſt; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, ſouth; and by the Bay of Biſcay, weſt.

Diviſions.] This kingdom is divided, and the dimenſions of the ſeveral parts diſtinctly ſpecified in the following table, by Mr. Templeman.

France.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.
Papiſts	Orleannois	22,050	230	180	Orleans
	Guienne	12,800	216	120	Bourdeaux
	Gaſcoigne	8,800	125	90	Aux or Augh
	Languedoc	13,175	200	115	Thouloufe
	Lyonnois	12,500	175	130	Lyon
	Champagne	10,000	140	110	Rheims
	Bretagne	9,100	170	105	Rennes
	Normandy	8,200	155	85	Rouen
	Provence	6,800	95	92	Aix
	Burgundy	6,700	150	86	Dijon
	Dauphine	5,820	107	90	Grenoble
	Iſle of France	5,200	100	85	Paris { N. Lat. 48-50. E. Lon. 2-25.
	French Compte	4,000	100	60	Beſancon
	Picardy	3,650	120	87	Amiens
	Rouſillon	1,400	50	44	Perpignan
	Total—	131,095			

To theſe may be added ſeveral fine provinces, which ſince the Reformation have been added to this overgrown kingdom by marriage, purchaſe, or conqueſt, viz. part of the Netherlands, which will be found under the title Netherlands, the dutchy of Lorrain, the countries of Alſace, Lower Navarre, Venaiſſin, and the iſland of Corſica.

Name and climate.] France took its name from the Franci, a German nation, who conquered the Gauls, the antient inhabitants. By its ſituation, it is the moſt compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpoſe both of power and commerce; and ſince the beginning of the 15th century, their inhabitants have fully availed themſelves of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholeſome; but ſome late authors think it is not near ſo ſalubrious as is pretended; and it muſt be acknowledged that the French have been but ſucceſsful


7 Deg. West from London
4
3
2
1
0
ENGLAND
Exeter
Weymouth
Chicheſter
Padſtow
Ter Bay
Portland I.
I. of Wight
St Ives
Dartmouth
Lands End
Falmouth
Start Pt.
50
Scilly Is.
Livard Pt.
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Alderney
C. Barfleur
Guernſey
Cherbourg
Sark
Jerſey
49
Coutances
St Malo
Granville
Conquet Road
I. de Bas
7 Isles
Ushant Is.
Breſt
Morlaix
St Brieux
Dol
Auranches
Breſt Harb.
48
les Saints
Quimper
Rennes
P. de Penmark
Port le Orient
Port Louis
Vannes
Quiberon
Belliſle
47
Loire R.
Noirmoutier I.
I. de Oye
St Gilles
Olonne
Ree I.
46
Oleron I.
Tour de Cordouan
Eſparre
45
Baſſens
Arcaſſon
FRANCE,
by
T. Kitchin.
44
St Sebaſtian
Fontarabia
43
British Statute Miles.
10 20 40 60 100 140
SPAI
ATLANTIC — OCEAN
BAY of BISCAY
Minutes W. fr. London
XI
Meridian of Lo



XX Minutes of Time East from London

ſucceſsful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain falſe prepoſſeſſions in favour of their own country. It muſt be owned, that their weather is more clear and ſettled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intenſely cold, and the inhabitants not ſo well ſupplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent ſoil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almoſt every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than thoſe of England; but neither their paſturage or tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, ſo that it has no verdure, and the ſoil barely produces as much rye and cheſnuts, as ſerve to ſubſiſt the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French ſoil is, that the inhabitants having but a precarious ſecurity in their own property, do not apply themſelves ſufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. Nature, however, has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vaſt plenty.

The French have of late endeavoured to ſupply the loſs ariſing from their precarious title to their lands, by inſtituting academies of agriculture, and propoſing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but thoſe expedients, however ſucceſsful they may be in particular inſtances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the huſbandman is ſure of enjoying the fruit of his labour. It muſt at the ſame time be admitted, that the French exceed perhaps the Engliſh themſelves in the theory of agriculture. No nation is better ſupplied than France is with wholeſome ſprings and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent uſe, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniencies of life. I ſhall afterwards ſpeak of their canals and mineral waters.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are, The Alps, which divide France from Italy. The Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain. Vauge, which divides Lorrain from Burgundy and Alſace. Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compte, from Switzerland. The Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor, in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its courſe north and north-weſt, being, with all its windings, from its ſource to the ſea at Nantes, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone, which riſes in Switzerland, flows on ſouth-weſt to Lyons, and then runs on due ſouth till it falls into the Mediterranean, below Arles. The Garonne riſes in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its courſe, firſt, north-eaſt, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, ſoon after its riſe, runs to the north-weſt, viſiting Troyes, Paris and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the Engliſh channel at Havre. To theſe we may add, the Soane, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which diſcharges itſelf into the Bay of Biſcay at Rochfort. The Rhine, which riſes in Swiſſerland, is the eaſtern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moſelle and the Sarre in its paſſage. The Somme, which runs north-weſt thro' Picardy, and falls into the Engliſh channel below Abbeville. The Var, which riſes in the Alps, and runs ſouth, dividing France from Italy, falls into the Mediterranean weſt of Nice. The Adour runs from eaſt to weſt, through Gaſcoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biſcay below Bayonne.

The

The vaſt advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which ariſes to France from thoſe rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and compleated in 1680: it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the ſpeedier paſſage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immenſe expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not anſwered that purpoſe. By the canal of Calais, travellers eaſily paſs by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Yper, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a courſe of 18 leagues, to the immenſe benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpreſſibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomleſs. There is another at Iſſoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Beſſe, in which if you throw a ſtone, it cauſes a noiſe like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS. The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The beſt judges think, however, that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental ſucceſs, with ſome great perſons, and the ſalubrity of the air and ſoil, than the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alſace, cure the palſey, weak nerves, and the ſtone. At Bagueiis, not far from Bareges, are ſeveral wholeſome minerals and baths, to which people reſort as to the Engliſh baths, at ſpring and autumn. Forges in Normandy is celebrated for its mineral waters, and thoſe of St. Amand cure the gravel and obſtructions. It would be endleſs to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, therefore I muſt omit them, as well as many remarkable ſprings: but there is one near Aigne in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noiſe like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taſte, but has a poiſonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die inſtantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Languedoc is ſaid to contain veins of gold and ſilver. Alſace has mines of ſilver and copper, but they are too expenſive to be wrought. Alabaſter, black marble, jaſper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Britany abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which ſerves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the beſt drab-cloths; and in the province of Anjou are ſeveral quarries of fine white ſtone. Some excellent turquoiſes (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-ſtone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for ſoups than thoſe of England. As to all kinds of ſeaſoning and ſallads they are more plentiful, and in ſome places better than in England; they being, next to their vines, the chief object of their culture. The province of Gaſtmois produces great quantities of ſaffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gaſcony, and other provinces of France

are ſo well known, that they need only to be mentioned. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that though they differ very ſenſibly in their taſte and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly thoſe of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac; and there are few conſtitutions, be they ever ſo valetudinary, to which ſome one or other of them is not adapted. Oak, elm, aſh, and other timber common in England, is found in France; but it is ſaid, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of ſalt is made at Rhee, and about Rochfort on the coaſt of Saintoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which when burnt makes excellent pot-aſhes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at preſent far inferior to the Engliſh both in the management and diſpoſition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horſes, black cattle, and ſheep, are far inferior to the Engliſh; nor is the wool of their ſheep ſo fine. The hair and ſkin of the chamois, or mountain goats, are more valuable than thoſe of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and thoſe of England, but that the former is not ſo well ſerved, even on their ſea-coaſts, with ſalt-water fiſh.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } If we believe ſome French writers, France contains 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but the calculation is certainly overſtrained by at leaſt 4,000,000, and of the remainder near 200,000 are eccleſiaſtics. I ſhall not diſpute the populouſneſs of France in former times, but it is certain that the number of her natives, and thoſe too the moſt uſeful to the public, have, during the laſt and preſent century, been greatly reduced, firſt, by the revocation of the edict of Nantes, * by Lewis XIV. and other religious perſecutions; ſecondly, by her perpetual wars; thirdly, by her emigrants to her colonies. Some writers make perhaps the numbers too low, when they fix them at 13,000,000. It is evident however that there is a great defect of population in the interior provinces.

The French, in their perſons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations in general from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their ſprightly wit than perſonal beauty; the peaſantry in general are remarkably ordinary, and are beſt deſcribed by being contraſted with women of the ſame ranks in England. The nobility and gentry accompliſh themſelves in the academical exerciſes of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which, they excel all their neighbours in ſkill and gracefulneſs. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-ſaddle, and monſtrous curb-bridle, in that exerciſe; and accommodate themſelves to the Engliſh manner. The landlords are as jealous of their game as they are in

* In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a Proteſtant, and juſtly ſtiled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, paſſed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured to the Proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion, but this edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the ſucceeding perſecutions, drove that people to England, Holland, and other Proteſtant countries, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufactures, to the great prejudice of their own country.

England, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors. A few of the French princes of the blood, and nobility, are more magnificent in their palaces and equipages than any of the Engliſh; but the other ranks of life are deſpicable, when compared to the riches, elegance, and opulence, not only of the Engliſh nobility and gentry in general, but to the middling people.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the ſubject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character, and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakneſs. It ſupports them under misfortunes, and impells them to actions to which true courage inſpires other nations. This character, however, is conſpicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers, for the common ſoldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroiſm. Hence it has been obſerved, with great juſtice, of the French and Engliſh, that the French officers will lead, if their ſoldiers will follow, and the Engliſh ſoldiers will follow, if their officers will lead. This ſame principle of vanity is of admirable uſe to the government, becauſe the lower ranks, when they ſee their ſuperiors elated, as in the time of the laſt war with England, under the moſt diſgraceful loſſes, never think that they are unfortunate; thence proceeds the paſſive ſubmiſſion of the French under all their calamities.

The French affect freedom and wit, but their converſation is commonly confined to faſhionable dreſſes and diverſions. Their diverſions are much the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair, degenerates into groſs foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the ſeeming levities of both ſexes are ſeldom attended with that criminality which, to people not uſed to their manners, they ſeem to indicate; nor are the huſbands ſo indifferent as we are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are exceſſively credulous and litigious; but of all people in the world, they bear adverſity and reduction of circumſtances with the beſt grace; but in proſperity they are intolerably inſolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious. An old French officer is an entertaining and inſtructive companion, and indeed the moſt rational ſpecies of all the French gentry.

The French may be characterized as being well mannered, rather than well bred. They are indiſcriminately complaiſant and officious, but they ſeldom know how to adjuſt their behaviour to the ſituation and character of thoſe they converſe with. All is a repeated round of politeneſs, which for want of diſcernment becomes affected, often ridiculous, and always diſguſtful to ſentimental people.

The French have been cenſured for inſincerity; but this is a fault which they poſſeſs in no greater degree than their neighbours, and the imputation is generally owing to their exceſs of civility, which throws a ſuſpicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have juſt as much virtue as other European nations, and have given as many proofs of generoſity, and diſintereſtedneſs; but this is far from being the character of their government, which has prepoſſeſſed the Engliſh against the whole nation, and when the French are no longer formidable, they will be no longer thought faithleſs.

It is doing the French no more than juſtice to acknowledge that they have given a poliſh to the ferocious manners and even virtues of other na-

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tions. They have long poſſeſſed the lead in taſte, faſhion, and dreſs, but it ſeems now to be in the wane, and they begin to think, that the Engliſh are not barbarians. This alteration of opinion has not however taken its riſe from their wits, their learned men, their courtiers, nor the middle ranks of life. The ſuperior orders of men in France are of a very different caſt from thoſe below them. They ſee with indignation the frivolouſneſs of their court, and however complying they may appear in public, when retired, they keep themſelves ſacred from its follies. Independent by their rank and fortunes, they think and act for themſelves. They are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They ſaw during the late war the management of their armies, their finances and fleets, with ſilent indignation, and their reſearches were favourable to the Engliſh. The concluſion of the late peace, and the viſits which they have ſince paid to England, have improved that good opinion, the courtiers themſelves have fallen in with it, and what ſome years ago would have been thought incredible, people of faſhion in France now ſtudy the Engliſh language, and imitate them in their cuſtoms, amuſements, dreſs, and buildings. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Milton, Pope, Addiſon, Hume, Robertſon, Richardſon, and many others of the laſt and preſent century, are ſacred among the French of any education; and to ſay the truth, the writings of ſuch men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raiſe the name of Great Britain, to that degree, in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more univerſal, and even a neceſſary ſtudy among foreign nobility. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and cuſtoms of the French, without giving a more minute view of ſome diſtinguiſhing peculiarities obſervable among that whimſical people in private life, and this from the remarks of an ingenious and well informed writer of the preſent age.

The natural levity of the French, ſays he, is reinforced by the moſt prepoſterous education, and the example of a giddy people, engaged in the moſt frivolous purſuits. A Frenchman is by ſome prieſt or monk taught to read his mother tongue, and to ſay his prayers in a language he does not underſtand. He learns to dance and to fence by the maſters of thoſe ſciences. He becomes a compleat connoiſſeur in dreſſing hair, and in adorning his own perſon, under the hands and inſtructions of his barber and valet de chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the fiddle, he is altogether irreſiſtible. But he piques himſelf upon being poliſhed above the natives of any other country, by his converſation with the fair ſex. In the courſe of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a ſet of phraſes, ridiculous even to a proverb; and theſe he throws out indiſcriminately to all women without diſtinction, in the exerciſe of that kind of addreſs, which is here diſtinguiſhed by the name of gallantry. It is an exerciſe, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in conſequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their cuſtoms and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thouſand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whoſe time hath been ſpent in making more valuable acquiſitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bedchamber, while ſhe is in bed, reaches her whatever ſhe wants, airs her ſhift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the

diſtribution of her patches, and adviſes where to lay on the paint. If he viſits her when ſhe is dreſſed, and perceives the leaſt impropriety in her coeffure, he inſiſts upon adjuſting it with his own hands. If he ſees a curl, or even a ſingle hair amiſs, he produces his comb, his ſciſſars, and pomatum, and ſets it to rights with the dexterity of a profeſſed frizeur. He ſquires her to every place ſhe viſits, either on buſineſs or pleaſure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himſelf neceſſary to her occaſions. In ſhort, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit maitre* is the moſt impertinent: and they are all *petite maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbiere*, (barber's boy) covered with meal, who ſtruts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

A Frenchman will ſooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the ſoldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has deſcended, as I ſaid before, to the loweſt claſs of people. The boy who cleans ſhoes at the corner of a ſtreet, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an aſs, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither ſhirt nor breeches.

I ſhall only mention one cuſtom more, which ſeems to carry human affectation to the very fartheſt verge of folly and extravagance: that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally ſuppoſed that part of the fair ſex, in ſome other countries, make uſe of *fard* and vermilion for very different purpoſes, namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I ſhall not enquire whether it is juſt and honeſt to impoſe in this manner on mankind; if it is not honeſt, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and ſhews, at leaſt, a deſire of being agreeable. But to lay it on as the faſhion in France preſcribes to all the ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of diſtinction, is to diſguiſe themſelves in ſuch a manner as to render them odious and deteſtable to every ſpectator who has the leaſt reliſh left for nature and propriety. As for the *fard*, or *white*, with which their necks and ſhoulders are plaiſtered, it may be in ſome meaſure excuſable, as their ſkins are naturally brown, or ſallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the leaſt art or dexterity, not only deſtroys all diſtinction of features, but renders the aſpect really frightful, or at leaſt conveys nothing but ideas of diſguſt and averſion. Without this horrible maſk no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite aſſembly, and it is a mark of diſtinction, which none of the lower claſſes dare aſſume.

Dress.] The French dreſs of both ſexes is ſo well known that it is needleſs to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dreſs in cities and towns is ſo variable, that it is next to impoſſible to deſcribe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their conſtantly changing their faſhions is of infinite ſervice to their manufactures. With regard to the Engliſh, they poſſeſs one capital ſuperiority, which is, that the cloaths of both ſexes, and their ornaments, are at leaſt one third cheaper.

When a ſtranger arrives in Paris he finds it neceſſary to ſend for the taylor, peruquier, hatter, ſhoemaker, and every other tradeſman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He muſt even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles: and, though at the riſk of his life, ſuit his cloaths to the mode of the ſeaſon. For example, though the wea-

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ther ſhould be ever ſo cold, he muſt wear his *habit d'été*, or *demi-ſaiſon*, without preſuming to put on a warm dreſs before the day which faſhion has fixed for that purpoſe; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuſe a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if poſſible, ſtill more ſubject to the caprices of faſhion. All their ſacks and negligees muſt be altered and new trimmed. They muſt have new caps, new laces, new ſhoes, and their hair new cut. They muſt have their taffaties for the ſummer, their flowered ſilks for the ſpring and autumn, their ſattins and damaſks for winter. The men too muſt provide themſelves with a camblet ſuit trimmed with ſilver for ſpring and autumn, with ſilk cloaths for ſummer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet for winter; and he muſt wear his bag-wig *a la pigeon*. This variety of dreſs is abſolutely indiſpenſible for all thoſe who pretend to any rank above the meer vulgar; all ranks, from the king downwards, uſe powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their ſuperiors in the fripperies of faſhion. The common people of the country, however, ſtill retain, without any material deviation, the old faſhioned modes of dreſs, the large hat, and moſt enormous jack-boots, with ſuitable ſpurs, and this contraſt is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, phyſicians, and merchants, generally dreſs in black; and it has been obſerved, that the French nation, in their modes of dreſs, are in ſome meaſure governed by commercial circumſtances.

RELIGION.] The religion of France is Roman Catholic, in which their kings have been ſo conſtant, that they have obtained the title of Moſt Chriſtian; and the pope, in his Bull, gives the king of France the title of Eldeſt Son of the Church. The Gallican church has more than once attempted to ſhake off the yoke of the Popes, and made a very great progreſs in the attempt during the reign of Lewis XIV. but it was defeated by the ſecret bigotry of that prince, who, while he was bullying the pope, was inwardly trembling under the power of the Jeſuits, a ſet that is now exterminated from that kingdom. Though the French clergy are more exempt than ſome others from the papal authority, their church confining the pope's power entirely to things relating to ſalvation, yet they are in general great enemies to any thing that looks like reformation in religion; and poſſeſſed as they are of immenſe property, there muſt be a thorough coalition in opinion between the king and his parliaments, before any eccleſiaſtical reformation can take place: a proſpect which ſeems at preſent very diſtant, notwithſtanding the differences between the pope and his moſt Chriſtian majeſty. In the ſouthern parts of France, the clergy and magiſtrates are as intolerant as ever, and the perſecutions of the proteſtants, or, as they are called, Hugonots, who are very numerous in thoſe provinces, ſtill continue. In ſhort, the common people of France diſcover no diſpoſition towards a reformation in religion, which, if ever it takes place, muſt probably be effected by the ſpirit of the parliaments. I ſhall not enter into the antiquated diſputes between the Moliniſts and the Janſeniſts, nor the different ſects of Quietiſts and Bourignons, that prevail among the Roman Catholics themſelves, nor into the diſputes that prevail between the parliament and clergy about the bull Unigenitus, which advances the pope's power above that of the crown. The ſtate of religion in France is a ſtrong proof of the paſſive diſpoſition of the natives, and the bigotry of their kings, who, in complaiſance to the pope, have depopulated their kingdom, as I have already hinted, of its moſt

uſeful inhabitants. It muſt at the ſame time be owned, that the Hugonots, while they ſubſiſted in a manner as a ſeparate ſtate within France, did not ſhew any remarkable proofs of their moderation, either in religion or government.

ARCHBISHOPRICS, BISHOPRICS, &c.] In the whole kingdom there are 17 archbiſhops, 113 biſhops, 770 abbies for men, 317 abbies and priories for women, beſides a great number of leſſer convents, and 250 commanderies of the order of Malta; but many of the abbies and nunneries have been lately ſuppreſſed, and the revenues ſeized by the king. The eccleſiaſtics of all ſorts are computed at near 200,000, and the revenues at about ſix millions ſterling. The king nominates all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, and priors, and can tax the clergy without a papal licence or mandate: accordingly, not many years ſince, he demanded the 20th penny of the clergy, and, to aſcertain that, required them to deliver in an inventory of their eſtates and incomes; to avoid which, they voluntarily made an offer of the annual ſum of twelve millions of livres, over and above the uſual free gift, which they pay every five years.

The archbiſhop of Lyons is count and primate of France. The archbiſhop of Sens, is primate of France and Germany. The archbiſhop of Paris, is duke and peer of the realm; and the archbiſhop of Rheims, is duke and peer, and legate of the holy ſee.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wiſeſt meaſures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every propoſal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He ſucceeded ſo far as to render it the moſt univerſal of all the living tongues, a circumſtance that tended equally to his greatneſs and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the ſchool of the arts, ſciences, and politeneſs. The French language, at preſent, is chiefly compoſed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives, introduced by the Franks. It is at preſent on the decay, its corner ſtones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were looſened; and in the preſent mode of writing and expreſſing themſelves, the modern French abandon that grammatical ſtandard, which alone can render a language claſſical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the Engliſh, but they are well adapted to ſubjects void of elevation or paſſion. It is well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common converſation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Nôtre Pére qui és aux cieux, ton nom ſoit ſanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonte ſoit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'huy notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offences, comme nous pardonnons a ceux qui nous ont offencez. Et ne nous indui point en tentation, mais noys delivre du mal: car a toi eſt le regne, la puiſſance, & la gloire aux ſiécles des ſiécles.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immerſed in barbarity. The firſt learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which improves the underſtanding, corrects the taſte, or regulates the affections. It conſiſted in a ſubtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the ſtudy of the Greek and Roman writers, which firſt aroſe in Italy, diffuſed itſelf among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary purſuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned

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men appeared in France, whoſe labours are well known and highly eſteemed all over Europe. The two Stephens, in particular, are names which every real ſcholar mentions with reſpect. It was not, however, till the 17th century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The *Academie Françoiſe* was formed for this purpoſe; and though their labours, conſidered as a body, were not ſo ſucceſsful as might have been expected, ſome particular academicians have done great ſervice to letters. In fact literary copartnerſhips are ſeldom very ſucceſsful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the preſent caſe. The Academy publiſhed a dictionary for improving the French language: it was univerſally deſpiſed. Furetieres, a ſingle academician, publiſhes another: it meets with univerſal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Auguſtus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the penſions he beſtowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000 l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterpriſes, upon which he expended ſo many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, the firſt diſtinguiſhed for tenderneſs, the ſecond for majeſty, and both for the ſtrength and juſtneſs of their painting, the elegance of their taſte, and their ſtrict adherence to the rules of the drama, are, next to the Greek tragedians, the moſt perfect maſters in this ſpecies of writing. Moliere would have exhauſted the ſubjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhauſtible, and particularly in France. In works of ſatire, and in criticiſm, Boileau, though a cloſe imitator of the antients, is not deficient in genius. But France has not as yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the ſame extenſive and univerſal kind with Shakeſpeare, equally fitted for the gay and the ſerious, the humorous and the ſublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our ſuperiors: Boſſuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Maſſillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection, which we may approach to, but never can ſurpaſs. The genius, however, of their religion and government, is extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the moſt uſeful branches of philoſophy. All the eſtabliſhments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of ſcience, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whoſe intereſt it is to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and miniſtry, who have an equal intereſt in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every ſound principle of government. The French have not therefore ſo many good writers on moral, religious, or political ſubjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced ſome great men who do honour to humanity, whoſe career no obſtacle could ſtop, whoſe freedom no government however deſpotic, no religion however ſuperſtitious, could curb or reſtrain. Who is ignorant of Paſcal, or the archbiſhop of Cambray? few men have done more ſervice to religion either by their writings or their lives. As for Monteſquieu, he is an honour to human nature: he is the legiſlator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and, wherever they go, they enlighten and envigorate the human mind.

In the Belles Lettres and miſcellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place D'Argens and Voltaire as the moſt conſiderable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Deſcartes was the greateſt philoſopher in modern times. He was the firſt who applied algebra to the ſolution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical diſcoveries of Newton. Many of the preſent age are excellent mathematicians; particularly D'Alembert, who, with all the preciſion of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the preſent century, the French have vied with the Engliſh in natural philoſophy. Buffon would deſerve to be reckoned among men of ſcience, were he not ſtill more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philoſophy. He is to be regarded as a philoſophical painter of nature; and under this view, his Natural Hiſtory is the firſt work of its kind.

Their painters, Pouſſin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at preſent to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr. Greuſe, for portraits and converſation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better underſtood in France than in England, or in any other nation. Their treatiſes on ſhip-building and engineering ſtand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the Engliſh. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our ſuperiors in architecture, though we now bid fair for ſurpaſſing them in this art.

We ſhall conclude this head with obſerving, that the French have now finiſhed the Cyclopedie, or general dictionary of arts and ſciences, which was drawn up in 26 volumes in folio, under the direction of meſſieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is the moſt complete collection of human knowledge we are acquainted with.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] Theſe literary inſtitutions have received an irreparable loſs by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, who made the languages, arts, and ſciences, their particular ſtudy, and taught them all over France. It is not within my plan to deſcribe the different governments and conſtitutions of every univerſity or public college in France; but they are in number 28, as follow; Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Beſançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Mouſon, Richlieu, Rheims, Soiſſons, Straſbourg, Toulouſe, Tournois, and Valence.

ACADEMIES.] There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones; that called the French Academy, that of Inſcriptions, and that of the Sciences; one of painting and ſculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horſe and other military exerciſes.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Few countries, if we except Italy, can boaſt of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and conſequently, compared to them, thoſe of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a moſt curious account of the ſepulchres of their kings, which have been diſcovered ſo far back as Pharamond; and ſome of them when broke open were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be ſeen triumphal arches; but the moſt entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vaſt delight in adorning it with magnificent

nificent edifices, both civil and ſacred, ſome of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itſelf. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found at Chalons, and likewiſe at Vienne. Niſmes, however, exhibits the moſt valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raiſed in the Auguſtan age by the Roman colony of Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water between two mountains, for the uſe of that city, and is as freſh to this day as Weſtminſter-bridge: it conſiſts of three bridges, or tires of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other ſtupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients that all ſtreams will riſe as high as their heads. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Niſmes, but the chief is the temple of Diana, whoſe veſtiges are ſtill remaining. The amphitheatre, which is thought to be the fineſt and moſt entire of the kind of any in Europe; above all, the houſe erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maiſon Carrie. The architecture and ſculpture of this building is ſo exquiſitely beautiful that it enchants even the moſt ignorant, and it is ſtill entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havock of war. At Paris may be ſeen the remains of the palace of Thermæ; which was built by the emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, about the year 356, after the ſame model as the baths of Dioclefian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large ſalloon. It is fabricated of a kind of maſtic, the compoſition of which is not now known, intermixed with ſmall ſquare pieces of free ſtone and bricks.

At Arles in Provence is to be ſeen an obeliſk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and ſeven feet diameter at the baſe, and all of one ſtone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The moſt particular are in Burgundy and Guienne, and other places beſides the neighbourhood of Niſmes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The paſſage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of maſſy ſilver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being 20 inches in diameter, and weighing 21 pounds, containing the ſtory of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general. It would be endleſs to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

I have already mentioned ſeveral remarkable ſprings and mountains which may be conſidered as natural curioſities. Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been already mentioned, and ſome ſubterraneous paſſages and holes, eſpecially at St. Aubin in Britany and Niont in Dauphiny, are really ſtupendous.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Theſe are numerous in France, of which we ſhall mention only Paris, Liſle, and their principal ſea-ports, Breſt and Toulon.

Liſle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the moſt regular and ſtrongeſt fortification in Europe, and was the maſter-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garriſoned with above 10,000 regulars; and for its magnificence and elegance, it is called little Paris. Its manufactures of ſilk, cambrick, and camblets, are very conſiderable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Every reader is acquainted with the hiſtory of Dunkirk, which the French have been obliged to demoliſh, but is ſtill a thorn in the ſide of the Engliſh, by being a harbour for their ſmugglers.

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The reſt of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving ſouthward, we come to the Iſle of France, the capital of which, and the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been ſo often deſcribed, that it may appear ſuperfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deſerves, to all the capitals in the world, in every reſpect, not excepting even population. Many of the Engliſh have been impoſed upon in this reſpect; and I have already hinted at the reaſons, particularly the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the moſt populous pariſhes about London. Another miſtake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of diſſenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not regiſter the births of their children, is amazing; and many of the poorer ſort cannot afford the expence of ſuch regiſtration. Another peculiarity exiſting in London is, that moſt of the Londoners, who can afford the expence, when they find themſelves conſumptive, or otherwiſe indiſpoſed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris therefore, where the regiſters are more exact and acceſſible to the poor, and where the religion and police are more uniform and ſtrict, is far more eaſily aſcertained than that of London; and by the beſt accounts, it does not exceed 7 or 800,000, which is far ſhort of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous pariſhes.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the univerſity, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the univerſity and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are more ſhewy, and ſome of its ſtreets, ſquares, hotels, hoſpitals, and churches, more ſuperbly decorated with a profuſion of paintings, tapeſtry, images, and ſtatutes; but Paris, notwithſtanding its boaſted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniences of life, and the ſolid enjoyments of ſociety. Without entering into more minute diſquiſitions, Paris, it muſt be owned, is the paradiſe of ſplendor and diſſipation. The tapeſtry of the Gobelines * is unequalled for beauty and richneſs. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itſelf; and the inſtitution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England or elſewhere. The Tuilleries, the Palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are ſhewn, the Royal palace, the King's Library, the Guild-Hall, and the hoſpital for invalids, are ſuperb to the higheſt degree. The city of Paris is ſaid to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French nobleſſe at Paris, take up a great deal of room, with their court-yards and gardens; and ſo do their convents and churches. The ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes very high, many of them ſeven ſtories. The houſes are built of ſtone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedneſs, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half ſo large as the Thames at London: it is too far diſtant from the ſea for the purpoſes of navigation, and is not furniſhed, as the Thames, with veſſels or boats of any ſort: over it are many ſtone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The ſtreets of

* One *Gobin*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the firſt who ſettled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the houſe has retained his name ever ſince; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, eſtabliſhed that valuable manufactury.

of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more ſhow than ſubſtance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of ſtrangers, are moſtly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who viſit that city; and in truth, the greateſt part of the trade of Paris ariſes from the conſtant ſucceſſion of ſtrangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This aſcendency over other nations, is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the Gobelines, or manufacture of tapeſtry, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapneſs of proviſions, excellency of the French wines, and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all theſe advantages, however, Paris, in general, will not bear a compariſon with London in the more eſſential circumſtances of a thriving foreign and domeſtic trade, the cleanneſs of their ſtreets, elegance of their houſes, eſpecially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which is ſaid to diſagree with ſtrangers, as do likewiſe their ſmall wines. In the houſes of Paris, moſt of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being ſprinkled with water, and ſwept once a day. Theſe brick floors, the ſtone ſtairs, the want of wainſcotting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of ſtone, are, however, good preſervatives againſt fire, which ſeldom does any damage in this city. Inſtead of wainſcotting, the walls are covered with tapeſtry or damaſk. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented, with teſter and curtains; but bugs are here a moſt intolerable nuiſance, which frequently oblige ſtrangers to ſleep on the floor during the exceſſive heat in the ſummer. Their ſhops are but poorly ſtored with goods; nor has their government made the proviſions that are ever in its power for the comfort of the inferior ranks; its whole attention ſeeming to be directed to the conveniency and ſplendor of the great. The ſhopkeepers and tradeſmen, an indolent loitering people, ſeldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dreſs, of velvet cap, ſilk night-gown, and Morocco ſlippers; but when they intend a viſit or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the reſemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contraſt between this claſs of people and thoſe of the ſame rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do moſt of the drudgery buſineſs of the ſhop, while the huſband loiters about, talks of the great, of faſhions and diverſions, the invincible force of their armies, and the ſplendor of the grand monarque. The Pariſians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living, and to be intoxicated with liquor is conſidered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butchers meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the ſummer ſeaſon, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and ſmall wine. The Pariſians ſcarcely know the uſe of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is ſo well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, ſeldom happen; and ſtrangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever ſo uncommon, meet with the moſt polite treatment. The ſtreets are patrolled at night by horſe and foot, ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, that no offender can eſcape their vigilance. They likewiſe viſit the publicans preciſely at the hour of twelve at night, to ſee that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France are un-

der the ſame excellent regulation, which with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom: but, for the ſame reaſons, when robberies do happen, they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country in Europe, England and Scotland excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleaſant, and contain a number of fine ſeats, ſmall towns, and villages; ſome of them being ſcattered on the edges of loſty mountains riſing from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Verſailles, which ſtands about 12 miles from Paris, though magnificent and expenſive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furniſh, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquiſite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and ſublime of that art. The gardens, however, and water-works (which are ſupplied by means of prodigious engines acroſs the Seine at Marli, about three miles diſtance) are aſtoniſhing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a ſtranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taſte and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amuſement of a luxurious court; but ſome of them are in a ſhameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanlineſs.

Breſt is a ſmall, but very ſtrong town, upon the Engliſh channel, with a moſt ſpacious and fine fortified road and harbour, the beſt and ſafeſt in all the kingdom; yet its entrance is difficult, by reaſon of many rocks lying under water. At Breſt is a court of admiralty, an academy for ſea-affairs, docks and magazines for all kinds of naval ſtores, rope-yards, ſtore-houſes, &c. inſomuch, that it may now be termed the capital receptacle on the ocean for the navy royal of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a ſea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy royal. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ſhips paſs from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the ſpacious outer harbour. Its arſenal, eſtabliſhed alſo by that king, has a particular ſtorehouſe for each ſhip of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being ſeparately laid up. Here are ſpacious workſhops for blackſmiths, joiners, carpenters, lockſmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk of ſtone is 320 toiſes in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine ſupplies whatever may be wanting in the particular ſtore-houſes, and contains an immenſe quantity of all kinds of ſtores, diſpoſed in the greateſt order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. juſtly ſtiled the Great, the famous Colbert, a Scotſman, miniſter to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illuſtrious a figure as a trading, as ſhe then did as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally poſſeſs that undaunted perſeverance that is neceſſary for commerce and colonization, though no people in theory, underſtand them better. It is to be conſidered, at the ſame time, that France by her ſituation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happineſs of her ſoil, muſt be always poſſeſſed of a great inland and neighbouring trade, which enriches her, and makes her the moſt reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe. I have already

enumerated

enumerated her natural commodities, to which may be added her manufactures of ſalt-petre, ſilk, embroidery, ſilver ſtuffs, tapeſtry, cambrics, lawns, fine laces, fine ſerges and ſtuffs, velvets, brocades, paper, brandy which is diſtilled from wine, a prodigious variety of toys, and other articles; many of which are ſmuggled into Great Britain, for which they are paid in ready money, to the great detriment of this country and its manufactures.

The ſilk manufacture was introduced into France ſo late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandſon, Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulſion of the proteſtants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreaſed to 4000, and their ſilk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French proteſtants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and ſtuffs, more eſpecially at Abbeville, are ſaid to be now little inferior to thoſe of England and Holland, aſſiſted by the clandeſtine importation of Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and workmen from this country.

I have already mentioned the infinite advantage ariſing to her inland commerce by her rivers and navigable canals.

As to her foreign trade, it may be ſaid to extend all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether the crown of France was a loſer by its ceſſion of Canada and part of Louiſiana at the late peace. But the moſt valuable part of Hiſpaniola in the Weſt Indies, which ſhe poſſeſſes by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a moſt improveable acquiſition, and the moſt valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the Weſt Indies ſhe likewiſe poſſeſſes the important ſugar iſlands of Martinico and Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante. Her poſſeſſions in North America ſince the late war, are only a ſmall tract upon the Miſiſſippi.

The French have ſtill poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, of which Pondicherry and Mauritius are the principal; and had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engroſſed more territory and revenues than are now in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their Eaſt India company ſeems now to be at its laſt gaſp. We cannot anſwer for the conſequences if that trade ſhould be thrown open. They may be more fatal to England than beneficial to France. At preſent, (ſays Mr. Anderſon) "her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by the way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Straſburgh—To the Netherlands, through Liſle—To Spain, (a moſt profitable one) through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the weſtern ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to France's very great advantage, more eſpecially reſpecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marſeilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very conſiderable. The negro trade from Guinea ſupplies her ſugar colonies, beſides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence."

In the year 1739, France may be ſaid to have been in the zenith of her commerce. Favoured by Spain, and dreaded by all the reſt of Europe, her fleets covered the ocean, but ſhe truſted too much to her own ſelf-importance. Cardinal de Fleury, who then directed her affairs, took no care to protect her trade by proper naval armaments; ſo that the greater it was, it became the more valuable prey to the Engliſh when war broke out. It is, however, the happineſs of France that her wounds

are ſoon cloſed, and it is hard to ſay how ſoon ſhe may recover all ſhe has loſt.

One great diſadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profeſſion of a merchant is not ſo honourable as in England, and ſome other countries, ſo that the French nobility think it below them, which is the reaſon that the church, the law, and the army are ſo full of that order. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to diſtinguiſh their reſpective pieces, which, however, muſt be very embarraſſing, eſpecially to ſtrangers.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The inſtitutions of public trading companies to Canada or New France, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, formerly coſt the French crown immenſe ſums, but we know none of them now ſubſiſting, tho' no doubt their Weſt India trade, which is ſtill very conſiderable, eſpecially in ſugar, is under proper regulations, preſcribed by their councils of commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The conſtitution of France, in feudal times, was very unfavourable to monarchy, but the oppreſſions of the great landholders by degrees grew ſo irkſome to the ſubjects, that they preferred the monarchical to the ariſtocratical government. Ariſtocracy however ſtill ſubſiſted in ſome degree to the beginning of the laſt century, chiefly through the neceſſity which the Hugonots or proteſtants were under to have princes of the blood, and men of great quality for their leaders; but cardinal Richlieu, miniſter to Lewis XIII. gave it a mortal blow, and all the civil diſputes in France ſince have been among great men for power and places, and between the kings and their parliaments, but the latter were ſeldom or never attended with any ſanguinary effects.

The preſent parliament of France has no analogy with that of Great-Britain. It was originally inſtituted to ſerve as a kind of law aſſiſtant to the aſſembly of the ſtates, which was compoſed of the great peers and landholders of the kingdom, and ever ſince it continued to be a law, and at laſt, a money court, and the members have had the courage of late to claim a kind of negative power to the royal edicts, which they pretend can be of no validity till regiſtered by them. His moſt chriſtian majeſty has often tried to invalidate their acts and to intimidate their perſons; but, deſpotic as he is, he has never ventured to inflict any farther puniſhment than a ſlight baniſhment or impriſonment for their moſt provoking acts of diſobedience.

This ridiculous ſituation between power and privilege ſhews the infirmity of the French conſtitution, as the king dares not puniſh, and his parliament will not obey; but it diſcovers at the ſame time, that the nation in general thinks the parliament its natural guardian againſt the court.

The kingdom of France is divided into thirty governments, over each of which is appointed a king's lieutenant-general, a ſuperintendant, who pretty much reſembles the lord lieutenants in England, but their executive powers are far more extenſive. Diſtributive juſtice in France is adminiſtered by parliaments, chamber of accounts, courts of aid, preſidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The parliaments were in number fifteen, thoſe of Paris, Toulouſe, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Remes, Pau, Mets, Beſançon, Douay, Perpignan,

Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras. Several of these parliaments however are now united into one. The parliament of Paris is the chief, and takes the lead in all national business. It is divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber is appropriated chiefly for the trial of peers. The Tournelle Civil judges in all matters of property above the value of 1000 livres. The Tournelle Criminel receives and decides appeals from inferior courts in criminal cases. Besides these three capital chambers, there are five of requests for receiving the depositions of witnesses, and determining causes, pretty much in the same manner as our bills and answers in chancery and the exchequer *.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the soil in France; her numerous manufactures, and extensive commerce; her great cities, numerous towns, sea-ports, rivers and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wines, and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their sprightliness and gaiety, he will undoubtedly conclude, that France is the most powerful nation, and her people the most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, however, appears to be the state of that nation at present; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

True it is, that in a country so extensive and fruitful, her government finds immense resources in men and money; but, as if the French councils were directed by an evil genius, these resources, great as they are, by a wrong application have proved the ruin of the people. The most obvious causes of this national poverty took their rise from the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, the aggrandizement of their name, and the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the names of loans, free gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods, more despotic and unwarrantable, such as raising and reducing the value of money as it suited their own purposes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppressions, were adopted, which gave the finishing blow to public credit, shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and industry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When

* On the 22d of February, 1771, after a long but ineffectual struggle with his parliaments, the French king issued an edict to the following effect: That as the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris was too extensive, reaching from Lyons, in the south of France, to Arras, in French Flanders, northward; which great distance occasioned much expence to his subjects, who might be obliged to come to Paris for the prosecution of their law affairs, his majesty had thought fit to branch the parliament of Paris into six different parliaments, under the denomination of *superior courts*, each parliament having similar jurisdiction; and that his majesty had appointed them their respective salaries, on the under-written establishments, which they are to hold during pleasure:

A first president	2 substitutes	
2 subaltern presidents	1 greffier civil	
20 counsellors	1 greffier criminal	no salary.
1 solicitor general	24 attornies	
1 attorney general	12 hissiers	

And it is conjectured, that all the parliaments of France are to be new modelled after this regulation, which will totally extinguish the remaining liberties of that unhappy nation.

When we conſider the motives of theſe wars, a deſire to enſlave and render miſerable the nations around them, that man muſt be devoid of humanity whoſe breaſt is not raiſed with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been ſpilt, the miſeries and deſolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a ſacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, from their late conqueſt of Corſica, that their own misfortunes have not taught them wiſdom or humanity, for while they thus graſp after foreign conqueſt, their own country exhibits a picture of miſery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a moſt diſmal and ſolitary appearance. The ſhops are mean beyond deſcription; and the paſſengers, who ſaunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty ſtreets, appear to be chiefly compoſed of prieſts and devotees, paſſing to or from maſs, hair-dreſſers, and beggars. That this is the appearance of their towns and many of their cities, we may appeal to the obſervation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it poſſible to mention a people more indigent than theſe citizens; we might deſcribe the farmers and peaſantry. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and moſt extenſive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidſt this profuſion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exiſt upon the gleanings; and his cattle, which are ſeldom numerous, pick a ſubſiſtence in the ſummer months from the ſkirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, diſpirited, and depreſſed, exhibits a ſpectacle of indigence hardly credible. And to ſee him plowing the ground with a lean cow, an aſs, and a goat, yoked together, excites in an Engliſh traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled. He forgets the country while he feels for the man.

Many of the taxes and revenues in France are let out for a time to the beſt bidder, or, as it is there called, farmed; and theſe harpies, the farmers general, and their underlings, make no ſcruple of fleecing the people moſt unmercifully; and the reſidue, if any do remain, goes to ſatisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy, who in their turn are obliged, as well as the laity, to advance the government immenſe ſums, under the names of tenths and free gifts, excluſive of which, as I have obſerved elſewhere, they are now taxed with a certain ſum, to be paid annually. As oppreſſions are at preſent exerciſed in full vigour, and taxes increaſing, there is the greateſt probability that the bulk of the French nation will long remain that poor, unhappy, and miſerable people we have been repreſenting them, which in truth is a happy circumſtance for the liberties and the peace of Europe.

Revenues.] Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of a prince who can command the purſes of all his ſubjects. In 1716, the whole ſpecie of France in gold and ſilver was computed to be about ſeventeen millions ſterling; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about 100 millions ſterling, or 2,000 millions of livres, yet by laying hold of almoſt all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raiſing or lowering the value of coins, in four years time the duke regent of France publiſhed a general ſtate of the public debts, by which it appeared that the king ſcarcely owed 340 millions of livres. This being done by a national robbery, we can form no idea but that of deſpotiſm of the means by which ſo great a reduction was effected. The French court has not ſince

ſince that time bluſhed to own, to wit towards the concluſion of the late war, and alſo in 1769, that their king was bankrupt; and his miniſters have purſued meaſures pretty much ſimilar to thoſe practiſed by the regent to recruit the royal finances.

Some writers ſay that the annual revenues of France, ordinary and extraordinary, by the account of their own financiers, (including Lorrain) do not amount to clear ſix millions ſterling, which is not equal to the natural revenue of England alone. Though I am apt to think that this calculation of the French revenues is rather too low, and that they may be fixed at ſeven millions; yet we are not to form our ideas of them from the great armaments, garriſons, and fortifications maintained by the French king, becauſe their expence is inconſiderable to him, compared to what they would be to a king of Great-Britain; and the like obſervation holds good in all the other departments of public expence in both kingdoms. The French themſelves, it is true, magnify the revenues of their crown ſometimes to twelve millions ſterling, or above; but their natural vanity gives them no right to any credit on ſuch a head; and though it is not at all impoſſible that the French king, in time of war, may raiſe ſuch a ſum upon his ſubjects, and diſcharge it by repaying them with one third of the debt, yet that is not to be accounted as a ſtated national revenue, and tends only to prove the miſery of the ſubject, and the injuſtice of the crown.

In France taxes are raiſed by the taille, or land-tax. The taillon, which the nobility are obliged to pay as well as the commons, is only another land-tax; by aids, which we call cuſtoms or merchandize; by gabels, which is a tax upon ſalt; by a capitation or poll-tax; by the tenths of eſtates and employments; by the ſale of all offices of juſtice; by confiſcations and forfeitures; and by a tenth, or free gift of the clergy, excluſive of the annual ſum of twelve millions of livres, which that body has of late advanced to the king.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] In time of peace, the crown of France maintains about 200,000 men, but, as I have already hinted, at a very ſmall expence, the pay of the common men being little more than two-pence half penny per day. In the time of war 400,000 have been brought into the field; but thoſe which are raiſed from the militia are very indifferent troops. In the reign of Lewis XIV. the French had at one time 100 ſhips of the line, which was almoſt equal to the marine force of all Europe beſides. The French have, however, at ſea been generally defeated by the Engliſh. The engagement at La Hogue, which happened in 1692, gave a blow to the French marine which it never has recovered. The preſent king, Lewis XV. has more than once made prodigious efforts towards re-eſtabliſhing his navy, but his officers and ſeamen are ſo much inferior to thoſe of England, that he ſeemed during the late war to have built ſhips of force for the ſervice of Great-Britain, ſo frequent were the captures made by the Engliſh. At preſent, viz. 1769, we are told, that including 50 gun ſhips, the French navy amounts to ſixty-four ſhips of the line, and twenty-five frigates, beſides ſmaller veſſels.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.] The title aſſumed by the French king, is ſimply, King of France and Navarre; and by way of compliment he is called his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty. His arms are three fleurs-de-lis, or, in a field argent, ſupported by two

angels in the habits of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hand, with the ſame arms. The motto is *Lilia non laborant neque nent.*

About the year 1349 Hubert the laſt count of Dauphiny, being accidentally the occaſion of his ſon's death, annexed that county to the crown of France, upon condition that the eldeſt ſon of France ſhould be, for the time to come, ſtiled Dauphine.

The French nobility are of four kinds; firſt, the princes of the blood; ſecondly, dukes and counts, peers of France; thirdly, the ordinary nobility; fourthly, the nobility lately made, or thoſe made in the preſent reign. The firſt prince of the blood, is the perſon who ſtands next to the crown after the king's ſons. The knights of the Holy Ghoſt are ranked among the higher nobility, as are the governors and lieutenants-general of provinces.

In France there are three orders; firſt, that of St. Michael, inſtituted in 1469, and though originally compoſed only of thirty-ſix knights, was afterwards enlarged to a hundred. A perſon muſt be a knight of this order before he can enter into that of (ſecondly) the Holy Ghoſt, which was founded in 1578, by Henry III. and is compoſed of a hundred perſons, excluſive of the ſovereign, and conferred only on princes of the blood, and perſons of the higheſt rank. Thirdly, the order of St. Lewis, which was inſtituted in the year 1693 by Lewis XIV. merely for military merit, and is worn by almoſt every officer, and even ſubalterns.

History.] The hiſtory of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly intereſting to a Britiſh reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Tranſalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, on the Italian ſide of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it ſoon became a deſireable object to the ambitious Romans; and after a brave reſiſtance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæſar, about forty-eight years before Chriſt. Gaul continued in the poſſeſſion of the Romans till the downfal of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who ſubdued, but did not extirpate the antient natives. The Franks themſelves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of ſeveral people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of juriſprudence better than their neighbours. Theſe Salii had a rule, which the reſt of the Franks are ſaid to have adopted, and has been by the modern Francs applied to the ſucceſſion of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of ſovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after eſtabliſhing their power, and reducing the original natives to a ſtate of ſlavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and ſucceeding kings found it neceſſary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective governments, until they at length aſſumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave riſe to thoſe numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the ſeveral parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws

were made, or taxes raiſed, without the concurrence of the grand council, conſiſting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the diſſolution of the Roman empire, the firſt government in France ſeems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumſcribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The firſt chriſtian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the beſt French hiſtorians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 468, from which period the French hiſtory exhibits a ſeries of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domeſtic broils or in foreign wars. The firſt race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of thoſe dark ages, became maſter of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope: he divided his empire by will among his ſons, which proved fatal to his family and poſterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France; and about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was perſuaded to profeſs himſelf a chriſtian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the perſon of William duke of Normandy, who ſubdued Harold, the laſt Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almoſt perpetual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithſtanding their numbers, and the aſſiſtance they received from Scotland.

The rage of cruſading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite ſervice to the French crown in two reſpects; in the firſt place, it carried off hundreds of thouſands of its turbulent ſubjects, and their leaders, who were almoſt independent of the king: in the next, the king ſucceeded to the eſtates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But paſſing over the dark ages of the cruſades, their expeditions to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we ſhall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to exceſs in his own perſon, and had defeated the Swiſs, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but loſt the imperial crown, Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and king of Spain, being choſen. Francis made ſome dazzling expeditions againſt Spain; but ſuffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuſe his power; by which he diſobliged the conſtable of Bourbon, the greateſt of his ſubjects, who joined in a confederacy againſt him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia, and obliged to agree to diſhonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of thoſe conditions was afterwards

wards the ſource of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithſtanding the variety of diſagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flouriſhing condition. Francis I. was ſucceeded by his ſon, Henry II. who upon the whole was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was ſo well ſerved by the duke of Guiſe, that though he loſt the battle of St. Quintin, againſt the Spaniards and the Engliſh, he retook Calais from the latter, who never ſince had any footing in France. He married his ſon, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this ſcheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomery.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon, Francis II. a weak, ſickly, inactive prince, whoſe power was entirely engroſſed by a prince of the houſe of Guiſe, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engroſſment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a ſtrong oppoſition againſt the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guiſes, the confederacy, who had adopted the cauſe of Hugonotiſm, was broken in pieces, when the ſudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under ſentence of death, for a conſpiracy againſt the court, but the queen-mother ſaved him, to balance the intereſt of the Guiſes; ſo that the ſole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her ſecond ſon, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued ſeries of diſſimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guiſe, who was the ſcourge of the proteſtants, was treacherouſly murdered by one Poltrot, at the ſiege of Orleans; and the murderer was thought to have been inſtigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the proteſtant party. Three civil wars ſucceeded each other. At laſt the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre and a proteſtant, and the French king's ſiſter. The heads of the proteſtants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if poſſible, in one night. This project proved but too ſucceſsful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himſelf aſſiſted in the maſſacre, in which the admiral fell; and it is ſaid that about 30,000 proteſtants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a freſh peace was concluded in 1573, with the proteſtants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had, ſome time before, been choſen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he, with ſome difficulty, eſcaped to France, where he took quiet poſſeſſion of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time ſupplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had loſt. The heads of the proteſtants could raiſe armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were ſo equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the ſcale. A holy league was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guiſe. The proteſtants, under the prince of Condè, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called in the German princes to their aſſiſtance; and a ſixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himſelf lord of the Netherlands. This civil war was finiſhed within the year, by another ſham peace. The king, ever ſince his acceſſion to the crown, had plunged himſelf into a courſe of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he poſſeſſed natural good ſenſe. He began to ſuſpect that the proſcriptions of the proteſtants, and the ſetting aſide from the ſucceſſion the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guiſe, the idol of the Roman-catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had ſome diſtant pretences. A ſeventh civil war broke out in the year 1579, and another in 1585, both of them to the diſadvantage of the proteſtants, through the abilities of the duke of Guiſe. The king thought him now ſo dangerous, that after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he and his brother, the cardinal, were, by his majeſty's orders, and, in a manner, under his eye, baſely aſſaſſinated. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited the crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himſelf into the arms of the proteſtants; but while he was beſieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greateſt force, he was, in his turn, aſſaſſinated by one Clement, a young enthuſiaſtic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of hiſtory are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre *, head of the houſe of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guiſe; and they drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, and a Roman-catholic, whom they proclaimed king of France. Being ſtrongly ſupported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, ſeemed only to make him more illuſtriouſly unfortunate; for he and his little court were ſometimes without common neceſſaries. He was, however, perſonally beloved; and no objection lay againſt him but that of his religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, ſplit among themſelves; and the French nation, in general, being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themſelves of the public diſtractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came ſecretly to a reſolution of declaring himſelf a Roman-catholic. This was a meaſure of neceſſity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Iſabella Clara Eugenia to

* A ſmall kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of which Henry's predeceſſors had been unjuſtly diſpoſſeſſed of the greateſt part, or Upper Navarre, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guiſe.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to maſs, as a mark of his converſion. This complaiſance wrought wonders in his favour; and having, with great difficulty, obtained abſolution from the pope, all France ſubmitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for ſeveral years with various fortunes. In 1598, he publiſhed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured to the proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chaſtiſed the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himſelf, with wonderful attention and ſucceſs, (aſſiſted in all his undertakings by his miniſter, the great Sully) to cultivate the happineſs of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of ſilk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-eſtabliſhed the tranquillity, and, in a great meaſure, ſecured the happineſs of his people, he formed connections with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the houſe of Auſtria; for which purpoſe, it is ſaid, he had formed great ſchemes, and collected a formidable army; others ſay (for his intention does not clearly appear) that he deſigned to have formed Chriſtendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal paſſion for a favourite princeſs, whoſe huſband had carried her, for protection, into the Auſtrian dominions. Whatever may be in thoſe conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was aſſaſſinated in his coach in the ſtreets of Paris, by one Ravilliac, like Clement, another young enthuſiaſt, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. ſon to Henry IV. deſervedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he diſcarded his mother and her favourites, and choſe for his miniſter the famous cardinal Richelieu, who put a period, by his reſolute and bloody meaſures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the eſtabliſhment of the proteſtants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's ſiſter, endeavoured, by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Hiſtorians ſay, that in theſe wars above a million of men loſt their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were ſpent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, 400 villages, 2000 churches, 2000 monaſteries, and 10,000 houſes, were burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a maſterly train of politics, though himſelf was next to an enthuſiaſt for popery, ſupported the proteſtants of Germany, and Guſtavus Adolphus againſt the houſe of Auſtria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conſpiracies which had been formed againſt him in France, he died ſome months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his ſon, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's nonage, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the adminiſtration of his mother, Anne of Auſtria, by the factions of the great, and the diviſions between the court and parliament, for the moſt trifling cauſes, and upon the moſt deſpicable principles. The prince of Conde flamed like a blazing ſtar, ſometimes a patriot, ſometimes a courtier, and ſometimes a rebel. He was oppoſed by the celebrated Turenne, who from

from a proteſtant had turned papiſt. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domeſtic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of Mazarine for her firſt miniſter, he found means to turn the arms, even of Cromwell, againſt the Spaniards, and to divide the domeſtic enemies of the court ſo effectually among themſelves, that when Lewis aſſumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himſelf the moſt abſolute monarch that had ever ſat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domeſtic adminiſtration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, whom I have already more than once mentioned, and who formed new ſyſtems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a ſurprizing height.

To write the hiſtory of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis: through the former he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the intereſts of his ſubjects only that they might the better anſwer the purpoſes of his greatneſs: by the latter, he embroiled himſelf with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a diſmal ſcene of devaſtation. I have often mentioned his impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes, which obliged the French proteſtants to take ſhelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufactories, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was ſo blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himſelf the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his conveniency, and at laſt raiſed againſt himſelf a confederacy of almoſt all the other princes of Europe, at the head of which was king William III. of England. He was ſo well ſerved, that he made head for ſome years againſt this alliance; but having provoked the Engliſh by his repeated infidelities, their arms, under the duke of Marlborough, and thoſe of the Auſtrians, under prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miſerable as the beginning of it was ſplendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued ſeries of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thouſand lives. Juſt as he was reduced, old as he was, to the deſperate reſolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was ſaved by the Engliſh withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He ſurvived his deliverance but two years, for he died on the firſt of September 1715, and was ſucceeded by his great grandſon, Lewis XV. the preſent king.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children, might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been ſeized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood. We have already ſeen in what manner he diſcharged the national debt of France; but having embroiled himſelf with Spain, the king was declared major in 1722, and the regent on the ſecond of December that year was carried off by an apoplexy.

The reader is not to expect that I am to follow the affairs of France through all the inconſiſtent ſcenes of fighting and treating with the ſeveral powers of Europe, which are to be found in their reſpective hiſtories. Among the firſt acts of the king's government was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his firſt miniſter. Though his ſyſtem was entirely pacific, yet the ſituation of affairs in Europe upon the death of the king of Poland more than once embroiled him with the houſe of Auſtria. The intention of the French king was to replace his

father-in-law Staniſlaus on the throne of Poland. In this he failed thro' the interpoſition of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians; but Staniſlaus enjoyed the title of king and the revenues of Lorrain during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great Britain, in the management of which the latter was ſo ill ſeconded by her allies, that it was finiſhed by the peace of Aix-la Chapelle in 1748. As to the war, which had the American conteſt for its riſe, and was ended by the peace of Fontainbleau, in 1763, the chief events attending it have been already mentioned, and are too recent to be recapitulated here *.

NETHERLANDS.

THE ſeventeen provinces, which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy in the German empire.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300 Breadth 200	between	49 and 54 north latitude. 2 and 7 eaſt longitude.

They are bounded by the German ſea on the north; by Germany eaſt; by Lorrain and France ſouth; and by the Britiſh channel weſt.

I ſhall, for the ſake of perſpicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the ſeventeen provinces under two great diviſions: Firſt, the northern, which contains the ſeven United Provinces, uſually known by the name of *Holland:* Secondly, the ſouthern, containing the Auſtrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly ſpeaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overiſſel, Zealand, Frieſland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one ſovereignty, they generally go by the name of the ſeven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 150 Breadth nearly the ſame.	between	51 and 54 north latitude. 3 and 7 eaſt longitude.

The

* Lewis XV. king of France and Navarre, was born in 1710, ſucceeded his great-grandfather, Lewis XIV. in 1715, crowned at Rheims in 1722, and married in 1725, to Maria Leſzinſki, only daughter to Staniſlaus, late king of Poland, duke of Lorrain, who died in 1768. Their iſſue are,

1. Maria Adelaide, Madame of France, ducheſs of Lorrain and Bar, born 1732.
2. Victoria Louiſa Maria Thereſa, born 1733.
3. Sophia Phillippina Elizabeth Juſtinia, born 1734.
4. Louiſa Maria, born 1737.

Iſſue of Lewis, late Dauphin of France, by the late Maria Joſepha of Saxony.

1. Lewis Auguſtus, Dauphin of France, born 1754, married 1770 to Maria Antonietta, ſiſter of the emperor of Germany, born 1755.
2. L. Stan. Xavier, count de Provence, born 1755.
3. Charles Philip, count D'Artois, born 1757.
4. Maria Adelaide Clotilda Xaveria, born 1759.
5. Elizabeth Philippa Maria Helena, born 1764.

The following is the moſt ſatisfactory account we meet with of their geographical diviſion, including the Texel, and other iſlands.

	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.	
United Provinces.						
Calviniſts.	Overiſſel	1,900	60	59	Deventer	
	Holland	1,800	84	52	AMSTERDAM	N. Lat. 52-23. E. Lon. 5-4.
	Gelderland	986	50	40	Nimeguen	
	Frieſland	810	44	34	Leuwarden	
	Zutphen	644	37	33	Zutphen	
	Groningen	540	45	37	Groningen	
	Utrecht	450	41	22	Utrecht	
	Zealand	303	29	24	Middleburg	
	Texel and other iſlands	113				
	Total —	7,546				

AIR, SOIL, AND SEASONS.] Theſe provinces lie oppoſite to England, at the diſtance of 90 miles upon the eaſt ſide of the Engliſh channel, and are only a narrow ſlip of low ſwampy land, lying between the mouths of ſeveral great rivers, and what the induſtry of the inhabitants have gained from the ſea by means of dykes, which they have raiſed and ſtill ſupport with incredible labour and expence. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and groſs, until it is purified by the froſt in winter, when the eaſt wind uſually ſets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moiſture of the air cauſes metals to ruſt, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reaſon of their perpetually rubbing and ſcouring, and the brightneſs and cleanlineſs in their houſes ſo much taken notice of. The ſoil is unfavourable to vegetation, but by the induſtry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for paſture, and in many places for tillage.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important conſideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largeſt and fineſt rivers in Europe; the Maeſe, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many ſmall rivers that join theſe, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the beſt are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing; that of Amſterdam, though one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe, has a bar at the entrance, over which large veſſels cannot paſs without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The quantity of grain produced here, is not ſufficient for home conſumption; but by draining their bogs and marſhes, they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Daniſh cattle to a vaſt ſize; and they make prodigious quantities of butter and cheeſe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, ſome fruit and iron; but all the pit-coal, and timber uſed there, and indeed moſt of the comforts, and even the neceſſaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of ſheep, whoſe wool is highly valued; and their horſes and horned cattle are of a larger ſize than in any other nation in Europe. It is ſaid there are ſome wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys, but, being birds of paſſage, they leave the country about the middle of Auguſt, with their young, and return the February following. Their river fiſh is much the ſame as ours, but their ſea-fiſh is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fiſhing in deeper water. No herrings

viſit

viſit their coaſts, and they have no oiſter beds. Notwithſtanding all theſe inconveniencies, the induſtry of the Hollanders furniſhes as great a plenty of the neceſſaries and commodities of life, and upon as eaſy terms, as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The ſeven United Provinces are perhaps the beſt peopled of any ſpot of the ſame extent in the world. They contain, according to the beſt accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants; beſides the 25 towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for ſo the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) ſeem to be formed by their ſituation, and to ariſe from their natural wants. Their country, which is preſerved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour, and the artificial drains with which it is every where interſected, muſt be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheeſe, are produced by a conſtant attention to laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the ſea by their herring fiſheries, for they diſpoſe of their moſt valuable fiſhes to the Engliſh, and other nations, for the ſake of gain. Their air and temperature of the climate incline them to phlegmatic, ſlow diſpoſitions, both of body and mind; and yet they are iraſcible, eſpecially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldneſs with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own intereſts; for in all other reſpects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable ſubjects. Their attention to the conſtitution and independency of their country is owing to the ſame principle, for they were never known to effect a change of government but when they thought themſelves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their intereſt at ſtake, witneſs their ſea wars with England, and France. Their boors, though ſlow of underſtanding, are manageable by fair means. Their ſeamen are a plain, blunt, but rough, ſurly, and ill-mannered ſort of people, and appear to be inſenſible of public ſpirit and affection for each other. Their tradeſmen are not to be truſted, but when they know themſelves to be under the laſh of the law for impoſitions; and they ſeldom uſe more words than are neceſſary about their buſineſs. Smoaking tobacco is practiſed by old and young of both ſexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are ſo unſociable. Though a Dutchman, when drunk, is guilty of every ſpecies of brutality; and though they have been known to exerciſe the moſt dreadful inhumanities for intereſt abroad, where they thought themſelves free from diſcovery, yet they are in general quiet and inoffenſive in their own country, which exhibits but few inſtances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both ſexes, it is owing in a great meaſure to the nature of their ſoil and climate. In general, all appetites and paſſions ſeem to run lower and cooler here than in other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unuſual ſtrains of pleaſant humour, nor warm enough for love; ſo that the ſofter paſſions are no natives of this country; and love itſelf is little better than a mechanical affection, ariſing from intereſt, conveniency, or habit; it is talked of ſometimes among

among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a diſcourſe that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the moſt expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no leſs neceſſary ſcience of preſerving it. Every man ſpends leſs than his income, be that what it will; nor does it enter into the heads of this ſagacious people, that the common courſe of expence ſhould equal the revenue; and, when this happens, they think at leaſt that they have lived that year to no purpoſe; and the report of it diſcredits a man among them as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. No country, therefore, can vie with theirs in the number of thoſe inhabitants, whoſe lot, if not riches, is at leaſt a comfortable ſufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. In all theſe particulars, the women exactly reſemble the men, eſpecially in their natural indifference as to the warmer paſſions. The rich traders and mechanics however, begin now to approximate to the luxuries of Engliſh and French dreſſing and living; and their nobility and high magiſtrates, who have retired from trade, rival thoſe of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diverſions of the Dutch differ not much from thoſe of the Engliſh, who ſeem to have borrowed from them the neatneſs of their drinking booths, ſkittle and other grounds, and ſmall pieces of water, which form the amuſements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand organs, and other muſical inventions. They are the beſt ſkaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to ſee the crowds in a hard froſt upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women (ſome of the latter carrying a baſket of eggs, or other country ware, upon their heads to market) in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

Dress.] Their dreſs formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jerkins, plain mobbs, ſhort petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickneſs and clumſineſs of their perſons, gave them a very groteſque appearance. Theſe dreſſes now prevail only among the lower ranks.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Preſbyterian or Calviniſm; none but Preſbyterians are admitted into any office or poſt in the government, excepting the army; yet all religions and ſects are tolerated, and have their reſpective meetings or aſſemblies for public worſhip, among which the papiſts and Jews are very numerous.

Language.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of faſhion ſpeak Engliſh and French. Their Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onſe Vader, die in de hemelin zyn; uwen naam worde geheylight: uw'koningkryk kome: uwe wille geſchiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons heeden, ene vergeeft onſe ſchulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onſe ſchuldenaaren: ene en laat ons neit in verſoer kingemaer vertoſt en van den hooſen.* Amen.

Learning and learned men.] Eraſmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, ſtand at the head almoſt of learning itſelf, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem diſputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the moſt elegant edition of the claſſics came from the Dutch preſſes of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controverſial divinity, which

inſinuated

inſinuated itſelf ſo much into the ſtate, that it had almoſt proved fatal to the government, witneſs the ridiculous diſputes about Arminianiſm, free-will, predeſtination, and the like. Beſides Boerhaave they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine, Grævius and Burmann ſtand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the claſſics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and later times have produced a Van Haaren, who is poſſeſſed of ſome poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 publiſhed poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities chiefly becauſe their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and ariſe chiefly from their employments in univerſities, church, or ſtate.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The prodigious dykes, ſome of which are ſaid to be 17 ells in thickneſs, mounds, and canals, conſtructed by the Dutch, to preſerve their country from thoſe dreadful inundations by which it formerly ſuffered ſo much, are ſtupendous, and hardly to be equalled. A ſtone quarry near Maeſtricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of ſubterraneous palace, ſupported by pillars twenty feet high. The ſtadthouſe of Amſterdam is perhaps the beſt building of that kind in the world: it ſtands upon thirteen thouſand large piles, driven into the ground; and the inſide is equally convenient and magnificent. Several muſeums, containing antiquities and curioſities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the famous univerſity of Leyden; ſuch as a ſhirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muſcles and tendons of the human body curiouſly ſet up, by profeſſor Stalpert Vander-Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Amſterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, next to London, the moſt commercial city in the world; in this reſpect, ſome have even given it the preference to London, though I cannot ſee with what propriety. Its conveniencies for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almoſt beyond deſcription. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are ſtruck with the neatneſs and cleanlineſs that is every where obſerved within doors. Rotterdam is next to Amſterdam for commerce and wealth: its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the ſeat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the reſort of foreign ambaſſadors and ſtrangers of all diſtinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapneſs of its proviſions, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about 40,000: it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleaſure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are known in the annals of literature for the accommodations of the ſcholars who attend their univerſities, and the beauty and conveniencies of their public ſchools. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workſhop where Peter the Great, of Muſcovy, in perſon, ſerved his apprenticeſhip to ſhip-building, and laboured as a common handicraft.

handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is ſubject to Pruſſia, and the capital city Gelder.

Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a deſirable country to live in, eſpecially to foreigners. Here are no mountains nor riſing grounds, no plantations, purling ſtreams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or ſteeple, has the appearance of a continued marſh or bog, drained at certain diſtances by innumerable ditches; and the canals, which ſerve as high roads, are frequently in a ſtate of ſtagnation. The uſual way of paſſing from town to town is by tractſcouts or covered boats, dragged along by horſes at a ſlow trot. This method of travelling is cheap, but extremely dull, for there is a ſameneſs through all the provinces. In Amſterdam are no ſprings of freſh or wholeſome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preſerve the rain water in reſervoirs.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce, would comprehend that of almoſt all Europe. There is ſcarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a ſtate to which they do not trade. In this they are aſſiſted by the populouſneſs of their country, the cheapneſs of their labour, and, above all, by their water carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be purchaſed here ſometimes cheaper than in the countries were they grow. Their Eaſt-India company have had the monopoly of the fine ſpices for more than a hundred years, and is the moſt opulent and powerful of any in the world. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is ſaid to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Aſia. Here the viceroys appear in greater ſplendor than the ſtadtholder; and it is ſaid the Dutch ſubjects in Batavia ſcarcely acknowledge any dependance on the mother country. They have other ſettlements in India, but none more pleaſant, healthful, or uſeful, than that on the Cape of Good-Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ſhips of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made ſome diſpoſitions to ſhip themſelves off to their ſettlements in India; ſo great was their averſion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fiſheries (the former upon the Scotch coaſt) which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they excel at home in numberleſs branches of trade, ſuch as their pottery, tobacco pipes, delft-ware, finely refined ſalt; their oil-mills, ſtarch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table damaſks; their ſaw-mills for timber, for ſhipping and houſes, in immenſe quantities; their great ſugar-baking; their vaſt woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dreſſing; the great quantity of their coin and ſpecie, aſſiſted by their banks, moſt eſpecially by that of Amſterdam; their Eaſt-India trade; and their general induſtry and frugality. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fiſheries, are in the ſame flouriſhing ſtate now as they were in the beginning of this century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general induſtry of the inhabitants.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe, the capital is the Eaſt-India, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immenſe wealth, having divided ſixty per cent. and ſometimes forty, about the year 1660; at preſent the dividends are much reduced; but in 124 years, the proprietors,

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on an average, one year with another, divided ſomewhat above 24 per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided 15 per cent. but the Dutch Weſt-India company, the ſame year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. The bank of Amſterdam is thought to be inexhauſtibly rich, and is under an excellent direction: it is ſaid by Sir William Temple, to contain the greateſt treaſure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may ſeem a paradox is, that this bank is ſo far from paying any intereſt, that the money in it is worth ſomewhat more than current caſh is in common payments. Mr. Anderſon ſuppoſes, that the caſh, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which is kept in the vaults of the ſtadthouſe, amount to 36 (though others ſay only to 30) millions ſterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This is a very intricate article; for though the United Provinces ſubſiſt in a common confederacy, yet each province has an internal government or conſtitution independent of the others: this government is called the ſtates of that province, and the delegates from them form the ſtates general, in whom the ſovereignty of the whole confederacy is veſted; but though a province ſhould ſend two, or more delegates, yet ſuch province has no more than one voice in every reſolution; and before that reſolution can have the force of a law, it muſt be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality, in times of great danger and emergency, has been ſet aſide. Every reſolution of the ſtates of a particular province muſt be carried unanimouſly.

The council of ſtate conſiſts likewiſe of deputies from the ſeveral provinces: but its conſtitution is different from that of the ſtates general: it is compoſed of twelve perſons, whereof Gelderland ſends two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Frieſland, one; Overiſſel, one; and Groningen, one. Theſe deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but perſonally. Their buſineſs is to prepare eſtimates, and ways and means for raiſing the revenue, as well as other matters that are to be laid before the ſtates general. The ſtates of the provinces are ſtiled Noble and Mighty Lords; but thoſe of Holland, Noble, and Moſt mighty Lords; and the ſtates general, High and Mighty Lords, or the Lords the States General of the United Netherlands; or, their High Mightineſſes. Subordinate to theſe two bodies, is the chamber of accounts, which is likewiſe compoſed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a ſeparate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland. In Holland the people have nothing to do either in chuſing their repreſentatives or their magiſtrates. In Amſterdam, which takes the lead in all public deliberations, the magiſtracy is lodged in 36 ſenators, who are choſen for life, and every vacancy among them is filled up by the ſurvivors. The ſame ſenate alſo elects the deputies to repreſent the cities in the province of Holland.

I have mentioned the above particulars, becauſe without a knowledge of them, it is impoſſible to underſtand the hiſtory of the United Provinces, from the death of king William to the year 1747, when the ſtadtholderſhip was made hereditary in the male and female repreſentatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner ſuperſedes the conſtitution I have already deſcribed. The ſtadtholder is preſident of the ſtates of every province; and ſuch is his power and influence, that he can change the deputies, magiſtrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he has

has the moulding of the aſſembly of the ſtates general, though he has no voice in it; in ſhort, though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than ſome kings[1]; for beſides the influence and revenue he derives from the ſtadtholderſhip, he has ſeveral principalities and large eſtates of his own. The preſent ſtadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau. His titles are, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain General, and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces. He is ſon of the late ſtadtholder, William-Charles, who married Anne, princeſs royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751. The preſent ſtadtholder was born in 1748, and in 1767 married the princeſs Frederica of Pruſſia.

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cauſes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is ſaid that juſtice is no where diſtributed with more impartiality.

REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Thoſe taxes conſiſt of an almoſt general exciſe, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; ſo that the public revenue amounts annually to about two millions and a half ſterling. The province of Holland pays above half of this revenue. The taxes in theſe provinces are ſo heavy, and ſo many, that it is not without reaſon that a certain author aſſerts, that the only thing that has eſcaped taxation there, is the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are ſaid to be exceeding low. Notwithſtanding the number and greatneſs of the taxes, every province is ſaid to labour under very heavy debts, eſpecially Holland; and the public credit is not in the moſt flouriſhing condition, witneſs the immenſe ſums in the Britiſh funds.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces is uncertain in time of peace, but they commonly amount to about 40,000; 25,000 of whom ſerve in garriſons; many of them are Scots and Swiſs; and, in time of war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom is the field marſhal general. No nation in Europe, England excepted, can fit out a more formidable fleet than the Dutch, having always vaſt quantities of timber prepared for building of ſhips; but the preſent marine force of the United Provinces is ſmall, compared to what it once was, when equal, if not ſuperior, to that of Great-Britain itſelf.

ARMS.] The enſigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, or, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlaſs, and with the other a bundle of ſeven arrows cloſe bound together, in alluſion to the ſeven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ creſcunt.*

HISTORY.] See the Auſtrian Netherlands.

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles		Degrees
Length 200	between	49 and 52 north latitude.
Breadth 200		2 and 7 east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the north; by Germany, east; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, south; and by another part of Picardy, and the Englisn Channel, west.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Auſtrians, French, and Dutch, we ſhall be more particular in diſtinguiſhing the provinces and towns belonging to each ſtate.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	
1. Dutch Brabant.	Boiſleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom	N.
	Maeſtricht	S. E.
	Grave	N. E.
	Lillo, Steenbergen	N. W.
2. Auſtrian Brabant	BRUSSELS, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50.	
	Louvain, Vilvorden, Landen	in the middle.

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independant of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it, and ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief towns	Limburg, ſubject to Auſtria.	
	Dalem, Fauquemont, or Valkenburg	ſubject to the Dutch.

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	
Auſtrian Luxemburg	Luxemburg	
French Luxemburg	Thionville, Montmedy	S. E.

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, ſubject to Auſtria.

Chief towns	Namur, on the Sambre and Maeſe	
	Charleroy on the Sambre.	

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	
Auſtrian Hainault	Mons, Aeth, Enguien	in the middle.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	
French Hainault —	Valenciennes Bouchain Conde Landrecy	S. W.

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France —	Cambray, E. of Arras. Crevecour, S. of Cambray.	

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France —	Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe St. Omer, E. of Boulogne Aire, S. of St. Omer St. Venant, E. of Aire Bethune, S. E. of Aire Terouen, S. of St. Omer.	

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Dutch Flanders —	Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulſt, N. Sas van Ghent, N.	
Auſtrian Flanders —	Ghent, on the Scheldt Bruges Oſtend Newport	N. W. near the ſea.
	Oudenard on the Scheld.	
	Courtray Dixmude	on the Lis.
	Ypres, N. of Liſle Tournay on the Scheld Menin on the Lis.	
French Flanders —	Liſle, W. of Tournay Dunkirk, on the coaſt E. of Calais Douay, W. of Arras Mardike, W. of Dunkirk St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes Gravelin, E. of Calais.	

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coaſt of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the ſeaſons more ſettled, both in winter and ſummer, than they are in England. The ſoil and its produce are rich, eſpecially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of paſture; and Flanders itſelf has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and ſometimes of England. The moſt barren parts for corn, rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Auſtrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and induſtry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richeſt and moſt beautiful ſpot in Europe, whether we

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles		Degrees
Length 200	between	49 and 52 north latitude.
Breadth 200		2 and 7 east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the north; by Germany, east; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, south; and by another part of Picardy, and the Englisſh Channel, weſt.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Auſtrians, French, and Dutch, we ſhall be more particular in diſtinguiſhing the provinces and towns belonging to each ſtate.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	
1. Dutch Brabant.	Boiſleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom	N.
	Maeſtricht	S. E.
	Grave	N. E.
	Lillo, Steenbergen	N. W.
2. Auſtrian Brabant	Bruſſels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50.	
	Louvain, Vilvorden, Landen	in the middle.

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independant of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it, and ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief towns	Limburg, ſubject to Auſtria.	
	Dalem, Fauquemont, or Valkenburg	ſubject to the Dutch.

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	
Auſtrian Luxemburg	Luxemburg	
French Luxemburg	Thionville, Montmedy	S. E.

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, ſubject to Auſtria.

Chief towns	Namur, on the Sambre and Maeſe	
	Charleroy on the Sambre.	

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	
Auſtrian Hainault	Mons, Aeth, Enguien	in the middle.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	
French Hainault —	Valenciennes Bouchain Conde Landrecy	S. W.

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France —	Cambray, E. of Arras. Crevecour, S. of Cambray.	

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France —	Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe St. Omer, E. of Boulogne Aire, S. of St. Omer St. Venant, E. of Aire Bethune, S. E. of Aire Terouen, S. of St. Omer.	

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Dutch Flanders —	Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulst, N. Sas van Ghent, N.	
Austrian Flanders —	Ghent, on the Scheldt Bruges Ostend Newport Oudenard on the Scheld. Courtray Dixmude Ypres, N. of Lisle Tournay on the Scheld Menin on the Lis.	N. W. near the sea. on the Lis.
French Flanders —	Lisle, W. of Tournay Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais Douay, W. of Arras Mardike, W. of Dunkirk St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes Gravelin, E. of Calais.	

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn, rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Austrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we

regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the amenity of its roads and villages, and the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in later times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is ſtill a moſt deſirable and pleaſant country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, ſcarcely a ſingle hill in it. Brabant, and the reſt of the provinces, conſiſt of little hills and vallies, woods, incloſed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maeſe, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent, and Oſtend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimſtone, are found in Luxemburgh, Limburg, and Liege, as are ſome marble quarries.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Flemings (for ſo the inhabitants of Flanders and the Auſtrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honeſt people; but their manners are ſomewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight deſperately in defence of their country; at preſent they make no great figure. The Auſtrian Netherlands are extremely populous, but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them at a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diverſions are the ſame with thoſe of the peaſants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders are mere Frenchmen and women in both theſe particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dreſs like the Dutch boors, and their language is the ſame; but the better ſort of people ſpeak French, and dreſs in the ſame taſte.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Roman-catholic; but proteſtants, and other ſects, are not moleſted.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are Cambray, Maline or Mecklin; the biſhoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.] The ſociety of Jeſus has produced the moſt learned men in the Auſtrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable ſettlements, which are now upon the decline. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, are their chief productions. Strada is an elegant hiſtorian and poet. The Flemiſh painters and ſculptors have great merit, and form a ſchool by themſelves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be ſufficiently admired. Fiamingo, or the Flemings models for heads, particularly thoſe of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engroſſed tapeſtry-weaving to themſelves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, and St. Omer.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in thoſe provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are alſo found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, ſeen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur.

CITIES.] This article has employed ſeveral large volumes publiſhed by different authors, but in times when the Auſtrian Netherlands were far more flouriſhing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles, but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner void. Bruges, formerly ſo noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconſiderable place. Oſtend is now no more than a convenient harbour for traders; and Ypres, a ſtrong garriſon town. The ſame may be ſaid of Charleroy and Namur, which lie in the Auſtrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of the Auſtrian Brabant, inſtead of its flouriſhing manufactories and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Bruſſels retains ſomewhat of its antient manufactories; and being the reſidence of the governor or viceroy of the Auſtrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapeſtry and thread lace-ſhop, with the houſes of ſome bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the firſt exploits of the Dutch, ſoon after they threw off the Spaniſh yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by ſinking veſſels, loaded with ſtone, in the mouth of the Scheld; thus ſhutting up for ever, the entrance of that river to ſhips of burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow ſufferers in the cauſe of liberty.

It may be obſerved here, that every gentleman's houſe is a caſtle or *chateau*; and that there are more ſtrong towns in the Netherlands than in all the reſt of Europe; but ſince the decline of their trade, by the riſe of the Engliſh and Dutch, theſe towns are conſiderably diminiſhed in ſize, and whole ſtreets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, proviſions are extremely good and cheap. A ſtranger may dine in Bruſſels on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat for leſs than a ſhilling Engliſh. Travelling is ſafe, reaſonable and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad cauſeway, and run for ſome miles in a ſtraight line, till they terminate with the view of ſome noble buildings.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Auſtrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithſtanding the boaſted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled, particularly in that ſpecies called cambricks, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. Theſe manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Auſtrian Netherlands are ſtill conſidered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal houſe, as being ſovereign of the whole, is the ſole director and ſummoning prince. This circle contributes its ſhare to the impoſts of the empire, and ſends an envoy to the diet, but is not ſubject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, appointed by the court of Vienna, who, at preſent, is his ſerene highneſs prince Charles of Lorrain, brother to the late, and uncle to the preſent emperor. The face of an aſſembly, or parliament, for each province, is ſtill kept up, and conſiſts of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Bruſſels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governor ſeldom or never finds any reſiſtance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular

governor, ſubject to the regent; and cauſes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] Theſe riſe from the demeſne lands and cuſtoms; but ſo much is the trade of the Auſtrian Flanders now reduced, that they are ſaid not to defray the expence of their government. The French Netherlands bring in a conſiderable revenue to the crown.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the empreſs-queen are chiefly employed in the frontier garriſons. Though by the barrier treaty, the Auſtrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of thoſe garriſons, and the Dutch two, yet both of them are miſerably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at leaſt 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, or, a lion ſable, and languid gules.

HISTORY.] The ſeventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies weſt of the Rhine, was called Belgicæ Galliæ by the Romans. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe provinces firſt, as they paſſed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire; and after being erected into ſmall governments, the heads of which were deſpotic within their own dominions, they were ſwallowed up by the houſe of Burgundy. The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, ranked them as a part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his ſon Philip, who ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occaſioned a general inſurrection. The counts Hoorn, Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the ſame time in the Netherlands, his diſciples joined the malecontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, in order to ſuppreſs them, and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe that periſhed by the ſword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their ſtadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though theſe revolters at firſt were ſo deſpicable as to be termed Beggars by their tyrants, their perſeverance and courage was ſuch, under the prince of Orange, and the aſſiſtance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain at laſt to declare them a free people, about the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independant ſtate, under the title of *The United Provinces*. When the houſe of Auſtria, which for ſome ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable, and when the public jealouſy was directed againſt that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had diſpoſſeſſed the prince of Orange of the ſtadtholderſhip, the ſpirit of the people was ſuch, that they revived it in the perſon of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy againſt Lewis XIV. king of France. By their ſea wars with England, under Cromwell, and in the reign of Charles II. they acquired

acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power; but, as I have already mentioned, their military virtue is on the decline.

The Spaniards remained poſſeſſed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramilies, in the year 1706. After which, Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, their ſovereign; and his daughter, the empreſs queen, remained poſſeſſed of them until the war of 1741, when the French made an entire conqueſt of them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and the places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be ſeen in the preceding general table of diviſions.

GERMANY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600	between	5 and 19 eaſt long.
Breadth 500		45 and 55 north lat.

BOUNDARIES.] THE empire of Germany, properly ſo called, is bounded by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the eaſt; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divides it from Italy, on the ſouth; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the weſt, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine, Moſelle, and the Maes.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The diviſions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. I ſhall therefore ſtick to thoſe that are moſt generally received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or ſouthern, and the Lower, or northern. The emperor Maximilian, predeceſſor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the diviſion was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourſelves to nine of thoſe diviſions, as they now ſubſiſt.

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the ſouth.

The northern circles	Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Weſtphalia
The circles in the middle	Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, Franconia
The ſouthern circles	Auſtria, Bavaria, Swabia.

I. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
Pomerania, in the North	Pruſſian Pomerania, N. E.	Stetin
	Swediſh Pomerania, N. W.	Stralſund

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Brandenburg in the middle, subject to its own elector the king of Prussia.	Altmark, west	Stendel
	Middlemark	Berlin, Potsdam
	Newark, east	Francfort, Custrin.
Saxony, Proper, in the south, subject to its own elector.	Duchy of Saxony, N.	Wittenburgh
	Lusatia, marq. east.	Bantzen, Gorlits
	Misnia, marq. south	Dresden
		Missein.
Thuringia, langr. west		Erfurtt, subject to the elector of Mentz.
The dutchies of	Saxe Meiningen	Meiningen
	Saxe Zeits	Zeits
	Saxe Altenburg, S. E.	Altenburg
	Saxe Weimer, west	Weimer
	Saxe Gotha, west	Gotha
	Saxe Eisnach, S. W.	Eisnach
	Saxe Saalfield	Saalfield.
	(Subject to their own dukes.)	
The counties of	Schwartsburg, W.	Schwartsburg
	Belchingen, N.	Belchingen
	Mansfield, N.	Mansfield.
	(Subject to their respective counts)	
The dutchies of	Hall, middle, subject to Prussia	Hall
	Saxe Naumberg, subject to its own duke	Naumburg.
The counties of	Stolberg, north-west	Stolberg
	Hohenstein, west	Northhausen
Principality of —	Anhalt, north	Dessau, Zerbst
		Bernberg, Kothen.
Bishopric of —	Saxe Hall, west	Hall
	Voigtland, south, subject to the elector of Saxony	Ploween.
Dutchy of —	Mersberg, middle, subject to the elector of Saxony	Mersberg.

2. Lower SAXONY Circle.

Holstein D. north of the Elbe	Holstein Proper, N.	Partly sub. to Denmark, and partly to the duke of Holstein Gottorp.	Keil, subject to Holstein Gottorp
	Ditmarsh, west		Meldorp, subject to Denmark.
	Stormaria, south		Gluckstat, subject to Denmark.
	Hamburgh, a sovereign state		Hamburg, E. L. 10-35. N. L. 54. an imperial city
	Wagerland, east		Lubec, an imperial city.
Lawenburg Dutchy, north of the Elbe, subject to Hanover			Lawenburg.
Subject to the duke of Brunswick Wolfembuttle.	D. Brunswic Proper	(middle)	Brunswic
	D. Wolfembuttle		Wolfembuttle
	C. Rheinstein, south		Rheinstein
	C. Blackenberg —		Blackenburg
Subject to the elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain.	D. Calenburg —		Hanover
	D. Grubbenhagen —		Grubbenhagen
	Gottengen —		Gottengen

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
Lunenburg D. sub. to Hanover.	D. of Lunenburg Proper	Lunenburg
	D. Zell —	Zell
Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north —	Bremen,	an imperial city.
	Verden.	
Mecklenburg Duchy —	D. Swerin, north, subject to its duke —	Swerin
	D. Gustrow, north, subject to its duke —	Gustrow.
Hildesheim bishopric, in the middle, subject to its bishop — —		Hildesheim, an imperial city.
Magdeburg duchy, south-east, subject to the king of Prussia — —		Magdeburg.
Halberstat duchy, subject to Prussia, south-east — —		Halberstat.

3. WESTPHALIA Circle.

North Division	Embden, C. or East Friesland, subject to the king of Prussia	Embden, an imperial city
	Oldenburg, C. sub. to the king of Denmark	Oldenburgh
	Delmonhurst	Delmonhurst
	Hoye, subject to Hanover	Hoye
	Diepholt	Diepholt.
Western Division	Munster B. subject to its bishop	Munster
	Paderborn B. subject to its bishop	Paderborn
	Osnaburg B. subject to its bishop	Osnaburg
	Lippe, C. sub. to its own count	Lippe, Pyrmont
	Minden D. sub. to Prussia	Minden
	Ravensburg C. sub. to Prussia	Ravensburg
	Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologn —	Arensburg
	Tecklenburg C. subject to their respective counts	Tecklenburg
	Ritberg C.	Ritberg
	Schawenburg C.	Schawenburg
Middle Division	Cleves D. subject to the k. of Prus.	Cleef
	Berg. D. subject to the elector Palatine	Dusseldorf
	Juliers D.	Juliers Aix
	Mark C. subject to Prussia	Ham
	Liege B. subject to its own bishop	Liege
		Huy
	Bentheim C. subject to Hanover	Bentheim
	Steinfort C. subject to its count	Steinfort.

4. Upper RHINE Circle.

Hesse	Hesse Cassel, landg. N. —	Cassel
	Hesse Marpurg, landg. N. —	Marpurg
	Hesse Darmstadt, landg. —	Darmstadt.

Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves.

Hesse Hoberg — — —	Homberg
Hesse Rhinefeld — — —	Rhinefeld
Hesse Wanfried — — —	Wonfield

Divisions.	Subdivisions.		Chief towns.
Counties in the Wetteraw south.	Nassau Dillenburg	Each county subject to its own count of the house of Nassau.	Dillenburg
	Nassau Diets		Diets
	Nassau Hadamar		Hadamar
	Nassau Kerberg		Kerberg
	Nassau Siegen		Siegen
	Nassau Idstein		Idstein
	Nassau Weilburg		Weilsburg
	Nassau Wisbaden		Wisbaden
	Nassau Bielsteid		Bielsteid
	Nassau Otweiler		Otweiler
	Nassau Usingen		Usingen
Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state —			Frankfort on the Maine, an imperial city.
County of Erpach, subject to its own count —			Erpach east.
Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state —			Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city.
Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts — — —			Deuxponts in the Palat.
County of Catzenelbogen, subject to Hesse Cassel — — —			Catzenelbogen on the Lhon.
Counties of	Waldec, subject to its own count		Waldec
	Solms, subject to its own count		Solms
	Hanau, subject to Hesse Cassel —		Hanau
	Eysenberg, sub. to its own count		Eysenberg
	Soyn — — — —		Sayn
	Wied — — — —		Wied
	Wetgenstein — — —		Witgenstein
	Haizfield — — —		Hatzfield
	Westerberg — — —		Westerberg.
Abby of Fuld, subject to its abbot —			Fuld.
Hirchfield — subject to Hesse Cassel —			Hirchfield.

5. Lower RHINE Circle.

Divisions.			Chief towns.
Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, subject to the elector Palatine			Heidelburg on the Neckar Phillisburg, Manheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine.
Archbishoprics and Electorates of	Cologn	Subject to their respective electors.	Cologne, on the Rhone, Bonn, on the Rhine.
	Mentz		Mentz, on the Rhine, Aschaffenburg, on the Maine.
	Triers		Triers, on the Mosselle.
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state —			Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city.
Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke —			Simmeren.
Counties of	Rhinegravestein — —		Rhinegravestein
	Meurs, subj. to Prussia —		Meurs
	Veldenti, subj. to the elector Palatine — — —		Veldents
	Spanheim — —		Creutznach
	Leymingen — —		Leymingen.

6. FRANCONIA Circle.

Divisions.		Chief towns.
Bishoprics of Wurtsburg, W.	Subject to their respective bishops.	Wurtsburg
Bemberg, N.		Bemberg
Aichstat, S.		Aichstat.
Marquisates of Cullenback, north-east	Subject to their respective margraves	Cullenback
Onspach, S.		Onspach.

Subdivisions.		Chief towns.
Principality of Henneburgh, N.	—— ——	Henneburgh
Duchy of Coberg, N. subj. to its duke	—— ——	Coberg
Duchy of Hilburghausen, subj. to its duke	——	Hilburghausen
Burgravate of Nuremburg, S. E. an independent state	—— —— —	Nuremburg, an imperial city.
Territory of the great master of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, S. W.	—— ——	Mergentheim.
Counties of Reineck, W.	——	Reineck
Bareith, E. sub. to its own margrave		Bareith
Papenheim, S. sub. to its own count		Papenheim
Wertheim, W.	——	Wertheim
Cassel, middle	——	Cassel
Schwartzenburgh, subject to its own count	—— ——	Schwartzenburg middle
Holach, S. W.	——	Holach.

7. AUSTRIA Circle.

The whole circle belongs to the empress queen of Hungary.

Division.	Chief towns.
Archduchy of Austria Proper —	Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints Ens, west.

Duchies of	Stira and Cilley, C.	Gratz, Cilley, S. E.
	Carinthia — —	Glagenfurt, Lavemund, S. E.
	Carniola — —	Laubach, Zerknits, Trieste, St. Veits, S. E.
	Goritia — —	Gorits, S. E.
County of Tyrol — — —		Inspruck
Bishoprics of Brixen — —		Brixen
Trent — —		Trent

S. W. on the confines of Italy and Switzerland.

8. BAVARIA Circle.

Subdivisions.		Chief towns.
Duchy of Bavaria Proper, on the Danube	Subject to the elector of Bavaria	Munich, Landshut, Ingoldstat, N. W. Donawert, [Ratisbon] N. an imperial city.
Palatinate of Bavaria		Amberg, [Sultsbach] N. of the Danube, subject to the elector Palatine.

Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
Freiſſingen, ſubject to its biſhop	Freiſſingen
Biſhopric of Paſſau, ſubject to its own biſhop	Paſſau, E. on the Danube.
Duchy of Neuberg, ſubj. to the elector Palatine	Neuberg, W. on the Danube.
Archbiſhop of Saltſburg, ſubject to its own archbiſhop	Saltſburg, S. E. Hallen.

9. SWABIA Circle.

Subdiviſions.			Chief towns.	
Duchy of Wurtemburg, ſub. to the duke of Wurtemburg	Stutgard, Tubingen, Hailbron			On, or near the Neckar.
Marquiſates of	Baden Baden, BadenDourlach	ſubject to their own reſpective margraves.	BadenDourlach, Baden Weiller	On, or near the Rhine.
Biſhopric of Augſburg, ſubject to its own biſhop			Augſburg, an imperial city, Hockſtet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube.	
Territory of Ulm, a ſovereign ſtate			Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city.	
Biſhopric of Conſtance, ſubject to its own biſhop under the houſe of Auſtria			Conſtance, on the lake of Conſtance.	
Principalities of	Mindelheim, Furſtemburg, Hohenzollern	Subject to their reſpective princes.	Mindelheim, S. of Augſburg, Furſtenburg, S. Hohenzollern, S.	
Counties of	Oeting, Koningſeck, Hohenrichburg		Oeting, eaſt, Koneckſeck, ſouth-eaſt, Gemund, north	
Baronies of	Waldburg, Limpurg		Waldburg, ſouth-eaſt, Limpurg, north.	
Abbies of	Kempten, Buchaw, Lindaw		Kempten, on the Iller, Buchaw, S. of the Danube, Lindaw, on the lake of Conſtance, imperial cities.	
Imperial cities, or ſovereign ſtates			Nordlingen, north of the Danube, Memminghen, eaſt, Rotwell, on the Neckar, and many more.	
Subject to the houſe of Auſtria	Black foreſt, N. W. Rhinefield C.		Rhinefield and Lauffenburg	
	Marquiſate of Burgaw		Burgaw, eaſt.	
	Territory of Briſgow, on the Rhine		Friburgh and Briſac.	

Name.] Great part of modern Germany lay in antient Gaul, as I have already mentioned; and the word Germany is of itſelf but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word; the moſt probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger*, or *Gar*, and *Man*; which, in

in the antient Celtic, ſignifies a warlike man. The Germans, however, went by various other names, ſuch as Allemanni, Teutones; which laſt is ſaid to have been their moſt ancient deſignation; and the Germans themſelves call their country Teuchland.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the ſituation, north, eaſt, ſouth, and weſt, but according to the improvement of the ſoil, which has a vaſt effect upon the climate. The moſt mild and ſettled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal diſtance from the ſea and the Alps. In the north it is ſharp; towards the ſouth it is more temperate.

The ſoil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture, and therefore in many places it is bare and ſterile, though in others it is ſurprizingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving, which muſt neceſſarily change the moſt barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The ſeaſons vary as much as the ſoil. In the ſouth and weſtern parts they are more regular than thoſe that lie near the ſea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north winds and the eaſtern blaſts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the ſeaſons of Germany and thoſe of Great-Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and thoſe which ſeparate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. Many other large tracts of mountains, however, are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The vaſt paſſion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is the reaſon why perhaps there are more woods and chaſes yet ſtanding in Germany than in moſt other countries. The Heraynian foreſt, which in Cæſar's time was nine days journey in length, and ſix in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Moſt of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vaſt number of foreſts of leſs note in every part of this country; almoſt every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chace or park adorned with pleaſure houſes, and well ſtocked with game, viz. deer, of which there are ſeven or eight ſorts, as roebucks, ſtags, &c. of all ſizes and colours, and many of a vaſt growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, bears, wolves, and boars. They abound ſo much alſo with wild fowl, that in many places the peaſants leave them and veniſon for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boaſt a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head ſtands the Danube or Donaw, ſo called from the ſwiftneſs of the current, and which ſome pretend to be naturally the fineſt river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade it is ſo broad, that, in the wars between the Turks and Chriſtians, ſhips of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it paſſes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vaſt number of cataracts and whirlpools; its ſtream is rapid, and its courſe, without reckoning turnings or windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weſer, and Moſelle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are thoſe of Conſtance and Bregentz. Beſides theſe are the Chiemſee, or the lake

lake of Bavaria; and the Zecknitzer-ſee in the dutchy of Carniola, whoſe waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Beſides thoſe lakes and rivers, in ſome of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of ſtanding water, which are next to peſtilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable diſorders.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is ſaid to contain more of thoſe than all Europe beſides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters, and thoſe of Pyrmont. Thoſe of Aix la Chapelle are ſtill more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath, and the ſprings of both are ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. Each of thoſe, and many other waters have their partizans in the medical faculty, and if we are to believe all they ſay, they cure diſeaſes internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wiſbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, likewiſe perform their wonders in almoſt all diſeaſes. The mineral ſprings at the laſt mentioned place are ſaid to intoxicate as ſoon as wine, and therefore they are incloſed. Carlſbad and Baden baths have been deſcribed and recommended by many great phyſicians, and uſed with great ſucceſs by many royal perſonages.

After all, many are of opinion that great part of the ſalutary virtues aſcribed to theſe waters is owing to the exerciſes and amuſements of the patients. It is the intereſt of the proprietors to provide for both; and many of the German princes feel the benefit of the many elegant and polite inſtitutions for the diverſion of the public. The neatneſs, cleanlineſs, and conveniency of the places of public reſort are inconceivable; and though at firſt they were attended with expence, yet they more than pay themſelves in a few years by the company which crouds to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amuſement and converſation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Bohemia, and many places in the circle of Auſtria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, ſalt-mines, and ſalt-pits are found in Auſtria, Bavaria, Sileſia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethiſts, jaſper, ſaphire, agate, alabaſter, ſeveral ſorts of pearls, turquois ſtones, and the fineſt of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greateſt princes and virtuoſi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege are quarries of curious marble, ſlate, chalk, ochre, red lead, allum and bitumen; beſides other foſſils. In ſeveral places are dug up ſtones, which to a ſtrong fancy repreſent different animals, and ſometimes trees of the human form. Many of the German circles furniſh coal-pits, and the *terra ſigillata* of Menſa, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote againſt poiſon.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries I have already deſcribed; but naturaliſts are of opinion, that had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the moſt fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its preſent, what we may call rude ſtate, proviſions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witneſs the prodigious armies which the moſt uncultivated part of it maintained

tained during the late war, while many of the richeſt and moſt fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rheniſh and the Moſelle wines differ from thoſe of other countries in a peculiar lightneſs and deterſive qualities, more ſovereign in ſome diſeaſes than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs. Their fleſh, and the hams made of it, is preferred by many, even to thoſe of Weſtmoreland, for flavour and grain. The glutton of Germany is ſaid to be the moſt voracious of all animals. Its prey is almoſt every thing that has life, which it can maſter, eſpecially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they ſurprize artfully and devour greedily. On theſe the glutton feeds ſo ravenouſly, that it falls into a kind of a torpid ſtate, and not being able to move he is killed by the huntſmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horſes; but their oxen and ſheep are not comparable to thoſe of England, probably owing to the want of ſkill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of ſinging birds, which are ſent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } As the empire of Germany is a collection of ſeparate ſtates, each having a different government and police, we can ſay little with preciſion as to the number of its inhabitants; but if they are fixed at twenty millions, the number is perhaps not exaggerated. When the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population muſt naturally encreaſe among them.

The Germans in their perſons are tall, fair, and ſtrong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and ſome of them, eſpecially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and ſhape that are ſo bewitching in ſome other countries; but this muſt be underſtood of the higher ranks.

Both men and women affect rich dreſſes, which in faſhion are the ſame as in France and England; but the better ſort of men are exceſſively fond of gold and ſilver lace, eſpecially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dreſs from the French and Engliſh, only they are not ſo exceſſively fond of paint, as the former. At ſome courts they appear in rich furs, and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers families, in many of the German towns, dreſs in a very different manner, and ſome of them inconceivably fantaſtic, as may be ſeen in many prints publiſhed in books of travels; but in this reſpect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dreſs from what they did thirty or forty years ago; as to the peaſantry and labourers, they dreſs as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and opulence. The ſtoves made uſe of in Germany are the ſame with thoſe already mentioned, in the northern nations, and are ſometimes made portable, ſo that the ladies carry them to church. In Weſtphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they ſleep between two feather-beds, with ſheets ſtitched to them, which by uſe becomes a very comfortable practice. The moſt unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes; who ſqueeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general the circumſtances of the common people are far preferable to thoſe of the French.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. The higher orders are ridiculouſly proud of titles, anceſtry, and ſhew. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their perſons promiſe more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, eſpecially the Italians, ſuch as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things, both againſt the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have ſeldom made any remarkable figure againſt either of thoſe two nations, or againſt the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This poſſibly might be owing to the arbitrary obſtinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two laſt wars the Auſtrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Induſtry, application, and perſeverance, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation, eſpecially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible were they not viſible, eſpecially in watch and clock-making, jewellery, turnery, ſculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, ſome of which I ſhall have occaſion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt plenty of their country in wine and proviſions of every kind. But thoſe practices ſeem now to be wearing out. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee, after three or four public toaſts have been drank. But no people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of ſo much honour, that a ſharper in other countries, eſpecially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than of any other nation.

The merchants and tradeſmen are very civil and obliging. All the ſons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogiſts of that country. This perhaps is one of the reaſons why the German huſbands are not quite ſo complaiſant as they ought otherwiſe to be to their ladies, who are not entitled to any preeminence at the table; nor indeed do they ſeem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are ſaid to be ſomewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premiſed, it may eaſily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary eſtate than a high ſounding title, eaſily enter into their armies, and thoſe of other ſovereigns. Their fondneſs for title is attended with many other inconveniencies. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it may treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a ſpecies of beings ſuperior to labourers of every kind, they would demean themſelves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domeſtic diverſions of the Germans are the ſame as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In ſummer, people of faſhion repair to places of public reſort, and drink the waters. As to their field diverſions, beſides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriouſly, a great part of their time being ſpent in feaſting and carouſing; and in winter, when the ſeveral branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges of different ſhapes, ſuch as griffins, tygers, ſwans, ſcollop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits, dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned

adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the ſledge is drawn by one horſe, ſtag, or other creature, ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribbons, and bells. As this diverſion is taken chiefly in the night-time, ſervants ride before the ſledge with torches, and a gentleman ſitting on the ſledge behind guides the horſe.

RELIGION.] This is a copious article, but I ſhall confine myſelf to what is moſt neceſſary to be known. Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German biſhops were poſſeſſed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their ſuperſtition. The Bohemians were the firſt who had an idea of reformation, and made ſo glorious a ſtand for many years againſt the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the ſacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romiſh church. This was in a great meaſure owing to Wickliff, an Engliſhman, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himſelf. Wickliff was ſeconded by John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithſtanding the emperor's ſafe conduct, were infamouſly burnt at the council of Conſtance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther *, of which we have ſpoke in the introduction, though it ſtruck at the chief abuſes in the church of Rome, was thought in ſome points (particularly that of conſubſtantiation, by which the real body of Chriſt, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is ſuppoſed to be taken in the ſacrament) to be imperfect. Calviniſm †, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practiſed in the church of Scotland) was introduced into Germany, and is now the religion of the king of Pruſſia, the landgrave of Heſſe, and ſome other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some go ſo far as to ſay that the numbers of proteſtants and papiſts in the empire are now almoſt equal. Germany, particularly Bohemia, Moravia, and the Palatinate, is overrun with ſectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At preſent, the modes of worſhip and forms of church government are by the proteſtant German princes conſidered in a civil rather than a religious light. The proteſtant clergy are learned and exemplary in their deportment, but the popiſh ignorant and libertine.

ARCHBISHOPSEES AND BISHOPSEES.] Theſe are differently repreſented by authors, ſome of whom repreſent Vienna as being a ſuffragan to the archbiſhopſee of Saltzburg; and others as being an archbiſhopric, but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbiſhop of Mentz, who has under him twelve ſuffragans, but one of them, the biſhop of Bamberg, is ſaid to be exempted from his juriſdiction;—Triers has three ſuffragans;—Cologne has four;—Magdeburg has five; Saltzburg has nine, beſides Vienna;—and Bremen three.

At different periods ſince the reformation it has been found expedient, to ſatisfy the claims of temporal princes, to ſecularize the following biſhopſees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburgh, Halberſtadt, Minden, Oſnaburg,

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to diſpute the doctrines of the Romiſh church 1517, and died 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he ſettled at Geneva in 1536, where he eſtabliſhed a new form of church diſcipline, which was ſoon after embraced by ſeveral nations and ſtates, who are now denominated Calviniſts, or Preſbyterians. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

Oſnaburg, (which goes alternately to the houſes of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at preſent held by his Britannic majeſty's ſecond ſon) and Lubec. Such of thoſe ſees as were archbiſhoprics are now conſidered as duchies, and the biſhoprics as principalities.

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies ſo much in its dialect, that the people of one province ſcarcely underſtand thoſe of another. Latin and French are the moſt uſeful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater-Noſter is as follows: *Unſer Nater, de hu biſt in himmel; geheiliget wer dein nahme: zukomm uns dein reich: dein wille geſchee auf erden, wie in himmel; unſer tæglich hrod gib uns heut; und vergib uns unſer ſchuld als wir vergehen unſern ſcaldigern; und fuerro uns nicht in verſuchung ſondern elæſe uns von vehel.* Amen.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND UNIVERSITIES.] No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taſte for reading, eſpecially in the proteſtant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number, thouſands of theſes and diſputations are annually publiſhed; for no man can be a graduate in their univerſities, who has not publiſhed one diſputation at leaſt. In this country there are 36 univerſities, of which 17 are proteſtant, 17 Roman catholic, and two mixed; beſides a vaſt number of colleges, gymnaſia, pedagogies, and Latin ſchools. There are alſo many academies and ſocieties for the promoting the ſtudy of natural philoſophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *naturæ curioſi*; the academy of ſciences at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipſic, at Duiſburgh, to which we may add the Latin ſociety at Gena. Of the public libraries, the moſt celebrated are thoſe of Vienna, Wolfenbuttel, Hanover, Gottingen, Weimar, and the council library at Leipſic. The Germans have written largely upon the Roman and Canon laws; Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, and Hoffman, have contributed greatly to the improvement of phyſic; Ruvinus and Dillenius of botany; Heiſter of anatomy and ſurgery; Newman, Zewmermann, Pott, and Margraf, of chymiſtry. In philoſophy, natural and moral, the reputation of Leibnitz, Wolfius, Puffendorff, Thomaſius, Otto van Gueriche, and Kepler, is great. Every prince, baron, and gentleman in Germany is a chymiſt or natural philoſopher. Germany has alſo produced good political writers, geographers, and hiſtorians, of whom Buſhing is the moſt voluminous; but they ſeem to have no great taſte or capacity for works of wit and entertainment, as poetry, plays, romances, and novels, or what is called the belles lettres; but they have had ſome good critics and antiquarians. They have one great defect, however, in all their writings, namely, that they are extremely prolix, dry, voluminous, and mechanical, and know little or nothing of that valuable art in which ſome nations excel, namely, of enlivening their performances, and mixing the pleaſant with the uſeful. With reſpect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themſelves tolerably well. Germany has produced ſome good painters, architects, ſculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the firſt inventors of engraving, etching, and metzotinto, as well as of gunpowder, guns and printing. For the improvement of ſome of theſe arts academies have been eſtabliſhed in ſome parts of Germany; as

Vienna,

Vienna, in particular, and Berlin are academies for painting, ſculpture, and architecture; at Dreſden and Nurenberg are academies for painting; and at Augſburgh is the Imperial Franciſcan academy of the fine arts. Germany has likewiſe produced ſome excellent muſicians; Handel, Bach, and Haſſe, of whom Handel ſtands at the head; and is is acknowledged, that he arrived at the ſublime of muſic, but he had not the ſmalleſt idea between muſic and ſentimental expreſſion.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. I have, in deſcribing the mineral and other ſprings, anticipated great part of this article, which is of itſelf very copious. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curioſities, artificial and natural, antient and modern. The tun at Heidelburg holds 800 hogſheads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine, from which ſtrangers are ſeldom ſuffered to retire ſober. Vienna itſelf is a curioſity; for here you ſee the greateſt variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Tranſylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library at Vienna, is a great literary rarity on account of its antient manuſcripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptic, and Chineſe; but the antiquity of ſome of them is queſtionable, particularly a New Teſtament in Greek, ſaid to have been written 1,500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewiſe many thouſand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vaſt collection of other curioſities in art and nature. The vaſt Gothic palaces, cathedrals, caſtles, and above all, town-houſes, in Germany, are very curious: they ſtrike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and ſometimes they have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houſes in great cities and villages have the ſame appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally conſiſt of a brick-wall, trenches filled with water, and baſtions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curioſities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave, near Blackenburg, in Hartz-foreſt, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles; but the moſt remarkable curioſity of that kind is near Hammelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where at the mouth of a cave ſtands a monument which commemorates the loſs of 130 children, who were there ſwallowed up, in 1284. Though this fact is very ſtrongly atteſted, it has been diſputed by ſome critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly repreſenting two monks in their proper habits; and of many ſtones which ſeem to be petrifactions of fiſhes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occaſional eſtimates of REVENUES AND POPULATION. This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly ſo in Germany, on account of the numerous independent ſtates it contains. The reader therefore muſt be contented with the mention of the moſt capital places and their peculiarities.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the moſt illuſtrious example of ſudden improvement that this age can boaſt of; yet, during the late war, it was found a place of no ſtrength, and fell twice, almoſt without reſiſtance,

into the hands of the Auſtrians, who, had it not been for the politeneſs of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preſerves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, beſides a royal palace, has many other ſuperb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calviniſt churches, beſides a popiſh one. Its ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious; its manufacturers of all kinds are numerous, and well provided: it abounds with theatres, ſchools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Buſching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garriſon. In the ſame year, and according to the ſame author, there were no fewer than, 443 ſilk-looms, 149 of half-ſilks, 2858 looms for woollen ſtuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for ſilk ſtockings, and 310 for worſted ones. They have here manufactures of tapeſtry, gold and ſilver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is by nature the richeſt country in Germany, if not in Europe: it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the lateſt accounts of the Germans themſelves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief) and the revenue, eſtimating each rix-dollar at four ſhillings and ſixpence, amounts to 1,350,000 l. This ſum is ſo moderate, when compared to the richneſs of the ſoil, which, if we are to believe Dr. Buſching, produces even diamonds, and almoſt all the precious ſtones to be found in the Eaſt-Indies and elſewhere, and the variety of ſplendid manufactures, that I am to believe the Saxon princes to have been the moſt moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can ſay little more, than has been already ſaid of all fine cities, of Dreſden, the elector of Saxony's capital, that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations; and above all, its ſuburbs are magnificent beyond all expreſſion; that it is beautifully ſituated on both ſides the Elbe; and that it is the ſchool of Germany, for ſtatuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dreſden, by the lateſt accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, ſtands on the river Leine, but is of no great conſideration. It contains about 1,200 houſes, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on ſome manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lies the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about 750,000 people, who live in 58 cities, and 60 market towns, beſides villages. The city and ſuburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchaſe to the ſaid elector, contains about 50,000 inhabitants, and has a conſiderable trade by the Weſer. The other towns belonging to the ſaid electorate have trade and manufactures; but, in general, it muſt be remarked, that the electorate has ſuffered greatly by the acceſſion of the Hanover family to the crown of Great-Britain. I ſhall here juſt mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the ſecularized biſhopric of Oſnaburg, lying between the rivers Weſer and Ems. The chief city, Oſnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The whole revenue of the biſhopric amounts to about 30,000 l.

Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, which formerly belonged to the king-

dom

dom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all ſects of Chriſtians and Jews are tolerated, but the magiſtracy is Lutheran. Since Sileſia fell under the Pruſſian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, though very inconſiderable before. The manufactures of Sileſia, which principally center at Breſlau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by ſome ſaid to bring his Pruſſian majeſty in near a million ſterling; but this ſum ſeems to be exaggerated, if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought into the houſe of Auſtria above 500,000 l. yearly.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Auſtria, and being the reſidence of the emperor, is ſuppoſed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a ſtrong city, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. The two Auſtrias, and the hereditary dominions of that houſe, are by nature ſo well furniſhed with all materials for the luxuries, the conveniencies, and the neceſſaries of life, that foreign importations into this city are almoſt totally prohibited. Vienna contains an excellent univerſity, a bank, which is in the management of her own magiſtrates, and a court of commerce immediately ſubject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a ſixth part of the town; but the ſuburbs are larger than the city. It would be endleſs to enumerate the many palaces, two of which are imperial, of this capital; its ſquares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curioſities. Among its rich convents is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Auſtria; and one of the ſix gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of ſome notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants, if we are to believe Dr. Buſching, are between 180,000 and 200,000; and the encouragement given them by their ſovereigns, has rendered Vienna the rendezvous of all the nations round.

After all that has been ſaid of this magnificent city, the moſt candid and ſenſible of thoſe who have viſited it, are far from being laviſh in its praiſe. The ſtreets, excepting ſome in the ſuburbs, are narrow and dirty; the houſes and furniture of the citizens are greatly diſproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, ſquares, and other public buildings; but above all, the exceſſive impoſts laid by the houſe of Auſtria upon every commodity in its dominions, muſt always keep the manufacturing part of their ſubjects poor. His preſent imperial majeſty ſeems to be ſenſible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predeceſſors and their counſellors: he examines things with his own eyes, and has deſcended from that haughtineſs of demeanour which rendered the imperial court ſo long diſagreeable, and indeed ridiculous, to the reſt of Europe. In general, the condition of the Auſtrian ſubjects has been greatly meliorated ſince his acceſſion to the imperial throne; but in this he acts agreeably to the ſentiments of his mother, who is the immediate poſſeſſor of thoſe vaſt dominions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vaſt advantages in point of commerce, from its ſituation, in the heart of Europe, and perforated as it were with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce (beſides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, aniſe, cummins, tobacco, ſaffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to thoſe of France and Italy.

Germany exports to other countries corn, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, wines, linen, and woollen, yarn, ribbons, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-ſkins, wool, timber, both for ſhip-building and houſes, cannon, and bullets, bombs and bomb-ſhells, iron-plates and ſtoves, tinned plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs-wire, porcelain, the fineſt upon earth, earthen-ware, glaſſes, mirrors, hog's briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalts, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printer's ink, and many other things. Some think that the balance of trade between England and Germany is to the diſadvantage of the former: but others are of a different opinion, as they cannot import coarſe woollen manufactures, and ſeveral other commodities, ſo cheap from any other country.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French proteſtants to ſettle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite ſervice to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, ſilks, ſtuffs of all kinds, fine and coarſe; linen and thread, and every thing neceſſary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meiſſen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Aſiatic company of Embden, eſtabliſhed by his preſent Pruſſian majeſty, is, excluſive of the Hanſeatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but in the great cities very large extenſive partnerſhips in trade ſubſiſt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almoſt every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own eſtates, but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whoſe power in the collective body or the diet, is not directorial but executive, and even that gives him vaſt influence. The ſupreme power in Germany is in the diet, which is compoſed of the emperor, or in his abſence, of his commiſſary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The firſt of theſe is the electoral college; the ſecond is the college of princes; and the third, the college of imperial towns.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for ſome centuries belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, as being the moſt powerful of the German princes; but by French management upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather, by the mother's ſide, to the preſent emperor, the elector of Bavaria was choſen to that dignity, and died, as is ſuppoſed, of heart-break, after a ſhort uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he ſigns at his election; and the perſon, who in his life-time is choſen king of the Romans, ſucceeds without a new election to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchiſements upon cities and towns, but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the conſent of the diet. When that conſent is obtained, every prince muſt contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may eſpouſe a different ſide from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German conſtitution, for George II. of England was obliged to furniſh his quota againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and the king of Pruſſia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for his ambaſſadors in all chriſtian courts.

The electors of the empire are nine in number. Each has a particular office in the imperial court, and they have the ſole election of the emperor. They are in order,

The archbiſhop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

The archbiſhop of Treves, who is high chancellor of the empire in France.

The archbiſhop of Cologne, who is the ſame in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand ſewer, or officer who ſerves out the feaſts.

The elector of Saxony, who is great marſhal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburgh (now king of Pruſſia) who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great ſteward; and

The elector of Hanover (king of Great-Britain) who claims the part of arch-treaſurer.

It is neceſſary for the emperor before he calls a diet to have the advice of thoſe members; and during the vacancy of the imperial throne the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have juriſdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the ſouthern circles.

The eccleſiaſtical princes are as abſolute as the temporal ones in their ſeveral dominions. The chief of theſe, beſides the three eccleſiaſtical electors already mentioned, are the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, the biſhops of Liege, Munſter, Spire, Worms, Wirtſburg, Straſburg, Oſnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Beſides theſe are many other eccleſiaſtical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeſſes, whoſe juriſdictions are likewiſe abſolute; and ſome of them very conſiderable, and all of them are choſen by their ſeveral chapters. The chief of the ſecular princes are the landgrave of Heſſe, the dukes of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttel, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquiſſes of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Naſſau, Anhalt, Furſtenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are ſovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewiſe ſovereign ſtates; thoſe which are imperial, or compoſe a part of the diet, bear the imperial eagle in their arms; thoſe which are Hanſe-towns, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, have ſtill great privileges and immunities, but they ſubſiſt no longer as a political body.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the *Aulic-council*, are the two ſupreme courts for determining the great cauſes of the empire, ariſing between its reſpective members. The imperial council conſiſts of 50 judges or aſſeſſors. The preſident and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chuſe one, and the other princes and ſtates the reſt. This court is at preſent held at Wetzlar, but formerly it reſided at Spire; and cauſes may be brought before it by appeal. The aulic-council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria. As that family's power encreaſed, the juriſdiction of the aulic-council was extended; and at laſt, to the great diſguſt of the princes of the empire, it uſurped upon the powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It conſiſts, of a preſident, a vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, a certain number of aulic-counſellors, of whom ſix are proteſtants, beſides other officers, but the emperor in fact is maſter of the court.

Theſe courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Paſſau, and the civil law.

Beſides theſe courts of juſtice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle.

After, upon any great emergency, the votes of the diet are collected, and ſentence pronounced, the emperor by his prerogative commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princeſs, whoſe troops live at free quarter upon the eſtates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences; upon the whole, the conſtitution of the Germannic body is of itſelf a ſtudy of no ſmall difficulty. But however plauſibly invented the ſeveral checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the houſe of Auſtria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been ſaved by the jealouſy of France. At preſent a great power, the houſe of Brandenburg, has ſtarted up to balance the Auſtrian greatneſs; and there ſeems to be no great appearance of any internal commotions among the princes of the empire, a circumſtance that is extremely favourable to the tranquillity of Europe, and the intereſt of Great-Britain in particular. Before I cloſe this head, it may be neceſſary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German hiſtory, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a proviſion made by the emperor Charles VI. for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions in the perſon of the next deſcendant of the laſt poſſeſſor, whether male or female. This proviſion has been often diſputed by other branches of the houſe of Auſtria, who have been occaſionally ſupported by France from political views, though the pragmatic ſanction is ſtrongly guarantied by almoſt all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland attempted to overthrow it, as being deſcended from the daughters of the emperor Joſeph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewiſe been again and again oppoſed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are ſo large as to be aſſigned to viceroys, to be oppreſſed and fleeced at pleaſure; nor are they without redreſs when they ſuffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. Whereas in France the lives and fortunes of the ſubject are entirely at the diſpoſal of the grand monarch. The ſubjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the moſt unhappy; for theſe princes, affecting the grandeur and ſplendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domeſtics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curioſities, guards, bands of muſic, tables, dreſs, and furniture, are obliged to ſupport all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vaſſals and dependants. With reſpect to the burghers and peaſants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter alſo, in ſome parts, for inſtance, in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain ſervices to their ſuperiors, and only pay taxes; whereas in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Luſatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Auſtria, &c. they may juſtly be denominated ſlaves, though in different degrees.

REVENUES.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who as ſuch has an annual income of about 5 or 6000 pounds ſterling, ariſing from ſome inconſiderable fiefs in the Black Foreſt. The Auſtrian revenues are immenſe, and are thought to amount

to 7,000,000 ſterling in Germany and Italy, a ſum that goes far in thoſe countries. The late king of Pruſſia, whoſe revenues were not near ſo extenſive as thoſe of his preſent majeſty, though he maintained a large army, was ſo good an œconomiſt that he left 7,000,000 ſterling in his coffers; and ſome have thought that Sileſia alone brings half a million ſterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a ſtranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes, which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and conſequently the low price of proviſions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that ſome princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot ſpeak with any tolerable preciſion on a ſubject of ſuch variety and uncertainty, and which comprehends ſo many independent ſtates.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two laſt wars, very little regard was paid, in carrying them on, to the antient German conſtitutions, the whole management being engroſſed by the head of the houſe of Auſtria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book or regiſter, which among other letters contains the aſſeſſments of men and money, which every prince and ſtate, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly aſſeſſments paid to the emperors when they viſited Rome. Thoſe aſſeſſments however are ſubject to great mutability. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that upon a moderate computation the ſecular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the eccleſiaſtical 74,500, in all 453,500; of thoſe the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria, is ſuppoſed to furniſh 90,000.

The elector of Mentz may maintain	6000
The elector of Triers	6000
The elector of Cologne	6000
The biſhop of Munſter	8000
The biſhop of Liege	8000
The archbiſhop of Saltzburg	8000
The biſhop of Wurtzburg	2000
The biſhop of Bamburg	5000
The biſhop of Paderborn	3000
The biſhop of Oſnabrug	2500
The abbot of Fulda	6000
The other biſhoprics of the empire	6000
The abbies and provoſtſhips of the empire	8000
Total of the eccleſiaſtical princes	74,500
The emperor, for Hungary	30000
——For Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia	30000
——For Auſtria, and other dominions	30000
The king of Pruſſia	40000
The elector of Saxony	25000
The elector Palatine	15000
The duke of Wirtemburg	15000
The landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel	15000
The prince of Baden	10000
The elector of Hanover	30000
The duke of Holſtein	12000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15000

The prince of Anhalt	6000
The prince of Lawenburg	6000
The elector of Bavaria	30000
The dukes of Saxony	10000
The prince of Naſſau	10000
The other princes and imperial towns	50000
The ſecular princes	379000
The eccleſiaſtical princes	74500
Total,	453,500

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The emperor of Germany pretends to be ſucceſſor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occaſions among the powers of Europe. Auſtria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that houſe, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is veſted as archduke. The arms of the emperor are a black eagle with two heads, hovering, with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is ſeen the imperial crown. It would be equally uſeleſs as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of inſtituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admiſſible unleſs confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as deſcended from the houſe of Burgundy. The empreſs dowager Eleanora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies or female knights; and the preſent empreſs-queen inſtituted the order of St. Tereſa.

HISTORY.] The manners of the antient Germans are deſcribed by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly diſtinguiſhed by their love of liberty and arms. They oppoſed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and ſtill continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independant of each other, though occaſionally connected by a military union for defending themſelves againſt ſuch enemies as threatened the liberty of them all. In this ſituation Germany remained, notwithſtanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the reſt into ſubjection, until the beginning of the ninth century: then it was that Charlemaigne, one of thoſe excentric and ſuperior geniuſſes who ſometimes ſtart up in a barbarous age, firſt extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The poſterity of Charlemaigne inherited the empire of Germany until the year 880, at which time the different princes aſſumed their original independency, rejected the Carlovinian line, and placed Arnulph, king of Bavaria, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been conſidered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their intereſt and arms, have mounted the throne. Of theſe, the moſt conſiderable, until the Auſtrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of theſe emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contin-

conteſts between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, aroſe the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former was attached to the popes, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their virulence and inveteracy, tended to diſquiet the empire for ſeveral ages. The emperors too were often at war with the infidels, and ſometimes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the ſucceſſion.

But what more deſerves the attention of a judicious reader than all thoſe noiſy but unintereſting diſputes, is the progreſs of government in Germany, which was in ſome meaſure oppoſite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raiſed by Charlemaigne, fell aſunder, all the different independent princes aſſumed the right of election; and thoſe now diſtinguiſhed by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a ſucceſſor to the imperial throne: they were only the officers of the king's houſhold, his ſecretary, his ſteward, chaplain, marſhal, or maſter of his horſe, &c. By degrees, however, as they lived near the king's perſon, and had, like all the other princes, independant territories belonging to them, they increaſed their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. 984, acquired the ſole right of electing the emperor. Thus while in the other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independant barons, was diminiſhed by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great-Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raiſed upon the ruins of the emperors ſupremacy, and of the people's juriſdiction. In 1440, Frederic III. duke of Auſtria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. His ſucceſſor, Maximilian, married the heireſs of Charles, duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the houſe of Auſtria. Charles V. grandſon of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation in ſeveral parts of Germany, which however was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually diſturbed by his wars with the German princes and French king, Francis I. Though ſucceſsful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the concluſion of it, began to forſake him; which, with other reaſons, occaſioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who in 1558 ſucceeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the addreſs to get his ſon Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his laſt will he ordered, that if either his own male iſſue, or that of his brother Charles, ſhould fail, his Auſtrian eſtates ſhould revert to his ſecond daughter, Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her iſſue. I mention this deſtination, as it gave riſe to the late oppoſition made by the houſe of Bavaria to the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of the empreſs-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was diſturbed with internal commotions, and an invaſion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was ſucceeded by his ſon

ſon Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Auſtria in his life time. He was ſucceeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calviniſts, were ſo much divided among themſelves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias, at laſt, reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commiſſaries out of a window at Prague. This gave riſe to a ruinous war which laſted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties, but they formed a confederacy, called the Evangelic League, which was counterbalanced by a catholic league.

Matthias dying in 1618, was ſucceeded by his couſin, Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and ſon-in-law to his Britannic majeſty James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he loſt it, by being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals at the battle of Prague, and he himſelf was deprived of his electorate, the beſt part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The prôteſtant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with wonderful obſtinacy; among them were the margrave of Baden Durlach; Chriſtian, duke of Brunſwic, and count Mansfeld; the laſt was one of the beſt generals of the age. Chriſtiern IV. king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French miniſter, was not fond of ſeeing the houſe of Auſtria aggrandized. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Chriſtiern, having put himſelf at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialiſt of great reputation in war. Ferdinand made ſo moderate a uſe of his advantages obtained over the proteſtants, that they formed a freſh confederacy at Leipſic, of which the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. I have already deſcribed his amazing victories and progreſs, when he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the proteſtant cauſe did not die with him. He had brought up a ſet of heroes, ſuch as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torſtenſon, Banier, and others, who ſhook the Auſtrian power, till under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munſter, in the year 1648; which forms the baſis of the preſent political ſyſtem of Europe.

Ferdinand II. was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was ſucceeded, by the emperor Leopold, a ſevere, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with, France on the one ſide, and the Turks on the other; and was a loſer in his war with both. France took from him Alſace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the ſiege been raiſed by John Sobieſki, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the firſt checks they received in Hungary. The empire, however, could not have withſtood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy againſt the French power, the conſequences of which have been already deſcribed. The Hungarians, ſecretly

ſecretly encouraged by the French, and exaſperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were ſtill in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died in 1705.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill ſerved by prince Lewis of Baden, general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithſtanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough had not all the ſucceſs he expected or deſerved. Joſeph himſelf was ſuſpected of a deſign to ſubvert the Germannic liberties; and it was plain by his conduct, that he expected England ſhould take the labouring oar in the war, which was to be entirely carried on for his benefit. The Engliſh were diſguſted at his ſlowneſs and ſelfiſhneſs; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male iſſue, he was ſucceeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in oppoſition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at firſt made a ſhew as if he would continue the war, but found himſelf unable, now that he was forſaken by the Engliſh. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden in 1714, that he might attend the progreſs of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the ſame general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialiſts; and next year the peace of Paſſarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leiſure in making arrangements for encreaſing and preſerving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the houſe of Hanover, an event which gave him a very deciſive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I. and II. in the empire. Charles was ſenſible of this, and carried matters with ſo high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach enſued between him and George I, and ſo unſteady was the ſyſtem of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their intereſt. Without entering into particulars, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that the ſafety of Havover, and its aggrandizement, was the main object of the Britiſh court; as that of the emperor was the eſtabliſhment of the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of his daughter, the preſent empreſs queen, he having no male iſſue. Mutual conceſſions upon thoſe great points, reſtored a good underſtanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by the purport of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquiſhed the great claims he had upon the Auſtrian ſucceſſion.

The emperor, after this, had very bad ſucceſs in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himſelf for the great ſacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the houſe of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to ſupply his place. The ſyſtem of France, however, under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and ſhe obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace, than he had reaſon to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers eaſy, had, before his death, given his eldeſt daughter, the preſent empreſs-

queen,

queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, a prince who could bring no acceſſion of power to the Auſtrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no ſooner in the grave, than all he had ſo long laboured for muſt have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmneſs of George II. The pragmatic ſanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Pruſſia entered, and conquered with an irreſiſtible army, Sileſia, which he ſaid had been wrongfully diſmembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria ſet up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic ſanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all thoſe powers had ſolemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a conſiderable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Pruſſia, was forced to cede to that prince the moſt valuable part of the duchy of Sileſia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and ſufferings, and the noble fortitude with which ſhe bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whoſe arms ſhe threw herſelf and her little ſon; and though they had been always remarkable for their diſaffection to the houſe of Auſtria, they declared unanimouſly in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an Engliſh and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time miſerable on the imperial throne, and would have given the queen of Hungary almoſt her own terms; but ſhe haughtily and impoliticly rejected all accommodation, though adviſed to it by his Britannic majeſty, her beſt, and indeed only friend. This obſtinacy gave a colour for the king of Pruſſia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of ſupporting the imperial dignity: but though he took Prague, and ſubdued the greateſt part of the kingdom, he was not ſupported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conqueſts, and retired to Sileſia. This event confirmed the obſtinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that ſhe might recover Sileſia. Soon after, his imperial majeſty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorrain, then grand duke of Tuſcany, conſort to the queen of Hungary, after ſurmounting ſome difficulties, was choſen emperor.

The bad ſucceſs of the allies againſt the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loſs of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empreſs-queen againſt his Pruſſian majeſty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorrain, who had before driven the Pruſſians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empreſs-queen was ſuch, that his Britannic majeſty thought proper to guarantee to him the poſſeſſion of Sileſia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Pruſſian majeſty pretended that he had diſcovered a ſecret convention which had been entered into between the empreſs-queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to ſtrip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themſelves. Upon this his Pruſſian majeſty, all of a ſudden, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took poſſeſſion of Dreſden; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty, by which the king of Pruſſia acknowledged the duke of Lorrain, now great duke of Tuſcany, for emperor. The war, however, continued in the Low Countries, not only to the diſadvantage, but to the diſcredit of the Auſtrians and Dutch, till it was finiſhed by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748.

1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen, and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles all former differences between these monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000 l. to his Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His Prussian majesty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowositz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impregnably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Prussian majesty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into the empire. The conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is the most amazing that is to be met with in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of near 100,000 Austrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marshal Schwerin was on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a most tremendous artillery; but just as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Collin, by the Austrian general Daun, and obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eisenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialists, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops: but they were beat at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aspect of the war; and the cautious, yet enterprizing genius of count Daun, laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding all his amazing victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorff; but an attack made upon his army, in the night time, by count Daun, at Hockkirchen, had almost proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony, for the safety of Silesia; and it has been observed that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did; six sieges were raised almost at the same time; that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipsic, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by Daun; those of Neiss, Cosel, and Torgau, by the Austrians.

Brevity obliges me to omit many capital scenes which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though extremely burdensome and bloody to Great Britain. It falls more within my plan to mention the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty, and his allies and generals, who were threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken possession of all the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians, but he soon found them by far the most formidable

dable enemies he had, as they were advancing, under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair, but was, at last, totally defeated by the Russians, with the loss of 20,000 of his best men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were shut up. He had lost, since the first of October 1756, the great marshal Keith, and 40 brave generals, besides those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landshut the imperial general, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austrians a ready gate into Silesia. None but his Prussian majesty would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he received seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not perhaps very easy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealousy which the imperial generals entertained of their Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialists in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the best fought action the king of Prussia had ever been engaged in, but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was attended with no great consequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, was on the points of compleating his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died, January 5, 1762; George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III. sought to finish the war with honour, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His Prussian majesty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced by his losses, that the empress-queen, probably, would have compleated his destruction, had it not been for the wise backwardness of the other German princes, not to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the empress-queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible backwardness of her generals to execute her orders, and new successes obtained by his Prussian majesty, at last prevailed upon her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, which secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia. Upon the death of the emperor, her husband, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire. The imperial court has formed several arrangements of distinct sovereignties in the Austrian family out of their Italian dominions, and seem at present to cultivate a pacific system both in the empire and all over Europe. His imperial majesty, though young, has discovered great talents for government. He has paid a visit, incognito, and with moderate attendance, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy, and has had a personal interview with his Prussian majesty; all which circumstances indicate that he is determined to be his own master, and not to be imposed upon by his ministers *.

* Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, empress-dowager of Germany, was born in 1717. Her son, Joseph-Benedict-Augustus, was born in 1741, crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded his father as emperor of Germany in 1765, married the same year the princess Josephina-Maria, of Bavaria, who died in 1767. He had by his first wife (the princess of Parma) a daughter, Theresa-Elizabeth, born in 1762.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT. } THIS country is bounded to the north by part of Samogitia; to the south, by Poland Proper and Masovia; to the east, by part of Lithuania; and to the west, by Polish Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND RIVERS. } The name of Prussia is evidently derived from the Borussi, the antient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horses, sheep, deer, and game; bears, wolves, wild boars, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well stored with fishes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coasts towards the Baltic. The woods furnish the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, besides quantities of pot-ashes. The rivers here sometimes do damage by inundations, and the principal are, the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Passarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As Prussia, since the beginning of the present century, has become a most respectable power upon the continent of Europe, I shall, for the information of my readers, deviate from my usual plan, that I may bring before their eyes the whole of his Prussian majesty's territories, which lie scattered in other divisions of Germany, Poland, Switzerland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which they will find in the following table.

Protestants.	Countries Names	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Poland.	Prussia,	9,950	160	112	KONINGS.	54-43 N. Lat. 21-35 E. Lon.
Up. Saxony.	Brandenburg,	10,910	215	110	Berlin,	
	Pomerania,	4,820	150	63	Camin,	
	Swe. Pomerania,	2,991	90	48	Stetin,	
Lo. Saxony.	Magdeburg,	1,535	03	50	Magdeburg,	
	Halberstat,	450	42	17	Halberstat,	
Bohemia.	Glatz,	550	38	23	Glatz,	
Westphalia.	Minden,	595	42	26	Minden,	
	Ravensburg,	525	38	34	Ravensburg,	
	Lingen,	120	15	11	Lingen,	
	Cleves,	630	43	21	Cleves,	
	Meurs,	35	10	6	Meurs,	
	Mark,	980	52	43	Ham,	
Netherlands.	Gelder,	360	34	23	Gelders,	
Switzerland.	Neufchatel,	320	32	20	Neufchatel.	
	Total—	34,771				

Also great part of Silesia, which the present king of Prussia hath, under various pretences, wrested from the empress-queen.

I shall here confine myself to Prussia as a kingdom, because his Prussian majesty's other dominions fall under the description of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom were, by Dr. Busching, computed to amount

amount to 635,998 perſons capable of bearing arms: and if ſo (for I greatly doubt their computation is exaggerated) it muſt then be more populous than is generally imagined. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 coloniſts have removed thitherward from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number, 17,000 were Saltzburghers. Theſe emigrants have built 400 ſmall villages, 11 towns, 86 ſeats, and 30 new churches; and have founded 1000 village ſchools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from thoſe of the other inhabitants of Germany. The ſame may be ſaid of their cuſtoms and diverſions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES.] The religion of Pruſſia is, through his preſent majeſty's wiſdom, very tolerant. The eſtabliſhed religions are thoſe of the Lutherans and Calviniſts, but chiefly the former; but papiſts, anabaptiſts, and almoſt all other ſects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in ſchools. An univerſity was founded at Koningſberg in 1544, but we know of no very remarkable learned men that it has produced.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] See Germany.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Pruſſia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains 280 pariſhes, and the latter 105.

Koningſberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, ſeated on the river Pregel, over which it has ſeven bridges, and is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Buſching, this city is ſeven miles in circumference, and contains 3,800 houſes, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation, I doubt, is a little exaggerated likewiſe, becauſe it ſuppoſes, at an average, near ſixteen perſons in every houſe. Koningſberg has ever made a conſiderable figure in commerce and ſhipping; its river being navigable for ſhips; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, beſides 298 coaſters; and that 373 floats of timber were, in the compaſs of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, beſides its college or univerſity, which contains 38 profeſſors, boaſts of magnificent palaces, a town-houſe, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embelliſhments. It has a good harbour and citadel, which is called Frederickſburg, and is a regular ſquare.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The preſent king of Pruſſia, by the aſſiſtance of an excellent police, has brought the commerce and manufactures of this country to a very flouriſhing ſtate, which is daily improving. The manufactures of Pruſſia conſiſt of glaſs, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper, and braſs mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, ſilk, ſtockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval ſtores, amber, linſeed, and hemp-ſeed, oat-meal, fiſh, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is ſaid that 500 ſhips are loaded every year with thoſe commodities, chiefly from Koningſberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Pruſſian majeſty is abſolute through all his dominions, but is too wiſe to oppreſs his ſubjects, though he avails himſelf to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of ſtate, viz. 1. The great maſter; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marſhal. There are alſo ſome other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The ſtates conſiſt, 1. Of councellors of ſtate; 2. Of deputies from

from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Beſides theſe inſtitutions, his majeſty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Pruſſian majeſty, by means of the happy ſituation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own excellent regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the ſeat of boors and barbariſm. It is ſaid, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues ariſe from his demeſnes, his duties of cuſtoms and tolls, and the ſubſidies yearly granted by the ſeveral ſtates; but the exact ſum is not known, though we may conclude that it is very conſiderable, from the immenſe charges of the late war.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The regulations of this department, introduced by his majeſty, have a wonderful quick operation in forming his troops and recruiting his armies. Every regiment has a particular diſtrict aſſigned it, where the young men proper for bearing arms are regiſtered; and when occaſion offers, they join their regiment, and being incorporated with veterans, they ſoon become well diſciplined troops.

ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Pruſſia are argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, or, for Pruſſia. Azure, the imperial ſceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle diſplayed, gules, with ſemicircular wreaths, for the marquiſate of Brandenburg. To theſe are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the Pruſſian crown.

There are two orders of knighthood; the firſt, that of the black eagle, inſtituted by Frederic I. on the day of his coronation at Koningſberg, with this motto, SUUM CUIQUE. The ſovereign is always grand maſter, and the number of knights, excluſive of the royal family, is limited to thirty.

Next to this is the order of Merit, inſtituted by his preſent majeſty; the motto is POUR LE MERITE.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Pruſſia, like that of other kingdoms, is loſt in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, and refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to chriſtianity, wanted to ſubject them to ſlavery. They made a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland, one of whom, Boleſlaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent and pagans till the time of the cruſades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1230, undertook their converſion by the edge of the ſword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country, when conquered. A long ſeries of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the moſt incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After this vaſt waſte of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Caſimir, king of Poland, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand maſter ſhould poſſeſs the other part; but were to acknowledge themſelves vaſſals of Poland. This gave riſe to freſh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unſucceſsfully, to throw off their vaſſalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburgh, and the laſt grand maſter of the Teutonic order, concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia, (formerly called, for that reaſon, Ducal Pruſſia) but

to be held as a fief of Poland, and to deſcend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male iſſue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic-William, of Brandenburgh, deſervedly called the Great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by Caſimir, king of Poland, from vaſſalage; and he and his deſcendents were declared independent and ſovereign lords of this part of Pruſſia.

As the proteſtant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburgh were now of that perſuaſion, the proteſtant intereſt favoured them ſo much, that Frederic, the ſon of Frederic-William the Great, was raiſed to the dignity of king of Pruſſia, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates of the empire, and ſoon after acknowledged as ſuch by all the powers of Chriſtendom. His grandſon, the preſent king of Pruſſia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this firſt king's talents for government, but expatiates on thoſe of his own father, Frederic-William, who ſucceeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of ſtrong natural parts, and performed prodigious ſervices to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is ſaid to have left ſeven millions ſterling in his treaſury, which has enabled his ſon, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful reſources, by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the preſent age *.

THE KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300	between	48 and 52 north latitude.
Breadth 250		12 and 19 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburgh, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, on the eaſt; by Auſtria and Bavaria, on the ſouth; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the weſt; comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Sileſia; and, 3. Moravia.

Diviſions.	Chief towns.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. moſtly ſubject to the Ho. of Auſtria.	PRAGUE, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50.
	Koningſgratz, E.
	Glatz, E. ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.
	Egra, W.
2. Sileſia, eaſt, moſtly ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.	Breſlau, E. lon. 16-50. N. lat. 51-15.
	Glogaw, N.
	Croſſen, N.
	Jagendorf, S.
	Tropaw, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.
	Teſchen, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

* Frederic III. king of Pruſſia, and elector of Brandenburg, was born in 1712, married in 1733 to Elizabeth-Chriſtina, of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, born in 1714, by whom he has no iſſue. The iſſue of the late William-Auguſtus, next brother to the king, are, 1. Frederic-William, prince royal of Pruſſia, born in 1744, and married in 1765 to the princeſs Elizabeth-Ulrica, of Brunſwic. 2. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 1751, and married in 1767 to the prince of Orange.

Divisions.	Chief towns.
3. Moravia, S. entirely subject to the house of Austria.	Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40. Brin, middle. Igla, S. W.

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia is not thought so wholesome as that of the rest of Germany, though its soil and produce are pretty much the same.

MOUNTAINS.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glass.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS.] We have no certain account of the present population of Bohemia; about 150 years ago, it was computed to contain 3,000,000 of inhabitants: they are thought at present not to be so numerous. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits, and manners, resemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle state of people; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. The lower ranks are accused of being addicted to pilfering and superstition. But though the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid asserters of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witness the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was scarcely known in any other, the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit: though it is certain, their internal jealousies and dissentions greatly contributed to their subjection. Their customs and diversions are the same as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the established religion of Bohemia, yet many of the Moravians have embraced a visionary unintelligible protestantism, if it deserves that name, which they propagate, by their zealous missionaries, through all parts of the globe; some of whom have lately made proselytes in Great-Britain: they have a meeting-house in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a settlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbishopric. The bishoprics are Koningsgratz, Breslau, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian, but they generally speak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, never could completely invest it. For this reason it is able to make a vigorous defence in case of a regular siege. The inhabitants, however, are thought not to be proportioned to its capaciousness, being thought not to exceed 70,000 Christians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 49 cloisters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are said to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia con-

tains many other towns, ſome of which are fortified, but they are remarkable neither for ſtrength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glaſs, paper, and gunpowder.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian conſtitution ſtill ſubſiſt; but the government, under the empreſs-queen, is deſpotic. Their ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of towns. Their ſovereigns, of late, have not been fond of provoking them by ill uſage, and they have a general averſion towards the Auſtrians. This kingdom is frequently deſcribed as part of Germany, but with little reaſon, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it ſubject to any of its laws. What gives ſome colour to this miſtake is, that the king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the ſovereign is pleaſed to exact from the ſtates of the kingdom, when they are annually aſſembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000 l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and paſſed in ſaltier, crowned languid, and armed, or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility uſed to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany ſometimes impoſed a king upon them, and at length uſurped that throne themſelves. In 1414 John Huſs and Jerome of Prague, two of the firſt reformers, were burnt at the council of Conſtance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection.

This occaſioned an inſurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council chambers; and the famous Ziſca aſſembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in ſeveral engagements, and drove the imperialiſts out of the kingdom. The diviſions of the Huſſites among themſelves, enabled the emperors to keep poſſeſſion of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing a proteſtant king in the perſon of the prince Palatine, ſon-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and being ſtript of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a ſubſiſtence; and the Bohemians, ſince that time, have remained ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300	between	17 and 23 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 200		45 and 49 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the houſe of Auſtria (for it formerly included Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, Temeſwar, and

and other countries) is bounded by Poland, on the north; by Tranſylvania and Walachia, eaſt; by Sclavonia, ſouth; and by Auſtria and Moravia, weſt.

The general diviſion of Hungary, is into Upper, by ſome called Proper, and Lower Hungary; the former lying north, and the latter ſouth of the Danube. Their chief towns being Preſburg and Buda.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and conſequently the climate, of the ſouthern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, ſtagnated waters, and marſhes; the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is ſweet and wholeſome. No country in the world can boaſt a richer ſoil, than that plain which extends 300 miles from Preſburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, graſs, eſculent plants, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, pulſe, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, cheſnuts, and wood: corn is in ſuch plenty, that it ſells for one ſixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Danube, Drave, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains ſeveral lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of conſiderable extent, and abounding with fiſh. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed the moſt ſovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raiſed by the Turks when in poſſeſſion of the country, particularly thoſe of Buda, are ſuffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their ſides grow the richeſt grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well ſtocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and ſilver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, cryſocolla, and terra ſigillata. Before Hungary became the ſeat of deſtructive wars, between Turks and Chriſtians, or fell under the power of the houſe of Auſtria, thoſe mines were furniſhed with proper works and workmen, and produced vaſt revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and ſilver employed mint houſes, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all thoſe mines are now greatly diminiſhed in their value, their work being deſtroyed or demoliſhed, ſome of them however ſtill ſubſiſt, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, generally mouſe coloured, and highly eſteemed by military officers, ſo that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Preſburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the ſame with thoſe of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tockay, are preferable to thoſe of any other country, at leaſt in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS.] It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary, and ſome of the deſcendants of their legionary forces, are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got poſſeſſion of Conſtantinople, we have reaſon to think, that Hungary was one of the moſt po-

pulous and powerful kingdoms in Europe; and if the houſe of Auſtria ſhould give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become ſo again in about a century hence. Both Hungaries at preſent, excluſive of Tranſylvania, and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themſelves. They pique themſelves on being deſcended from thoſe heroes, who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. In their perſons they are well made. Their fur-caps, their cloſe-bodied coats, girded by a ſaſh, and their cloak or mantle, which is ſo contrived, as to buckle under one arm, ſo that the right hand may be always at liberty, gives them an air of military dignity. The men ſhave their beards, but preſerve their whiſkers on their upper lips. Their uſual arms are a broad ſword, and a kind of poll-ax, beſides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handſomer than thoſe of Auſtria, and their ſable dreſs with ſleeves ſtrait to their arms, and their ſtays faſtened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and Engliſh ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur and even ſheep-ſkin dreſſes. The inns upon the roads are moſt miſerable hovels, and even thoſe ſeldom to be met with. Their hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peaſants, and their poultry, live in the ſame apartment with their owners. The gout, and the fever, owing to the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, are the predominant diſeaſes in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other ſtrangers, ſettled in their country, the flatneſs of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diverſions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their anceſtors, even ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were ſo jealous of their liberties, that rather than be tyrannized over, by the houſe of Auſtria, they often ſubmitted to that of Othman; but their fidelity to the preſent empreſs-queen, during her diſtreſs, notwithſtanding the provocations they received from her houſe, will be always remembered to their honour.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of the Hungarians, is the Roman-catholic, though the major-part of the inhabitants are proteſtants or Greeks, and the preſent empreſs-queen, out of gratitude for their ſervices, has reſtored them to the full exerciſe of their civil and religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are Preſburg, Gran and Colocza. The biſhoprics Great Waradin, Agria, Veſprin, Raab, and five churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is ſaid to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemoſt rank ſpeak German, and almoſt all of them Latin, either pure or barbarous.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The artificial curioſities of this country, conſiſt of its bridges, baths and mines. The bridge of Eſſek built over the Danube, and Drave, is, properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. It was an important paſs during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and about twenty Hungarian miles diſtance from Belgrade, is the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, adjudged to be the moſt magnificent of any

any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to diſtinguiſh them from the like works in other countries.

One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities of Hungary, is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathom high, and eight broad; its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching away further ſouth than has been yet diſcovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be 50 fathoms, and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful parculars are related of this cavern, which is an article in natural philoſophy. Aſtoniſhing rocks are common in Hungary, and ſome of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Theſe are greatly decayed from their antient magnificence, but many of the fortifications are ſtill very ſtrong, and kept in good order. Preſburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia are kept. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its antient magnificence, but its ſtrength and fortifications, and the ſame may be ſaid of Peſt, which lies on the oppoſite ſide of the Danube. Raab is likewiſe a ſtrong city, as is Gran and Comorra. Tockay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Having already mentioned the natural produce of the country, all I can add is, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives, conſiſt of metals, drugs and ſalt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians diſlike the term of queen, and call their preſent ſovereign king Tereſa. Their government preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which reſembles our chancery, and which reſides at Vienna; as the ſtadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the Britiſh privy-council, but has a municipal juriſdiction, does at Preſburg. Every royal town has its ſenate; and the Geſpan chaſts reſemble our juſtices of the peace. Beſides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other ſubordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The empreſs-queen can bring to the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but ſeldom draws out of it above 10,000; theſe are generally light-horſe, and well known to modern times by the name of huſſars. They are not near ſo large as the German horſe; and therefore the huſſars ſtand upon their ſhort ſtirrups when they ſtrike. Their expedition and alertneſs has been found ſo ſerviceable in war, that the greateſt powers in Europe have troops that go by the ſame name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horſe and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a purſuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are ſtill extant in the cabinets of the curious, a complete ſeries of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been diſcovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

ARMS.] The empreſs-queen, for armorial enſigns, bears quarterly, barwiſe argent, and gules of eight pieces.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after ſubduing this country, communicated their name to it, being then part of the antient Pannonia. Hungary was formerly an aſſemblage of different ſtates, and the firſt who aſſumed the

title of king, was Stephen, about the year 1000, when he embraced chriſtianity. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert aſcended the throne, and ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Crontea, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of thoſe conqueſts were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Hunniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladiſlaus, bravely repulſed the Turks, who invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladiſlaus, the Hungarians in 1438, raiſed Matthius Corvinus, ſon to Hunniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting againſt Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle had almoſt proved fatal to Hungary, but archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the ſiſter of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he ſucceeded, with ſome difficulty, and that kingdom has ever ſince belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, though by its conſtitution its crown ought to be elective. For the reſt of the Hungarian hiſtory, ſee Germany.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, AND CROATIA.

I HAVE thrown thoſe countries under one diviſion, for ſeveral reaſons, particularly becauſe we have no preciſe, or authentic account of their extent and boundaries; and it is very difficult to fix what part of them belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, and what to the Turks, or other nations. The beſt account therefore I can give of them is as follows: Tranſylvania is generally reckoned to belong to Hungary, and is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the eaſt by Moldavia and Walachia; on the ſouth by Walachia; and on the weſt by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 25 degrees of eaſt longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; but ſurrounded on all ſides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Hungary. The air is wholeſome and temperate; but the wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanſtat, and its interior government ſtill partakes greatly of the ancient feudal ſyſtem, being compoſed of many independent ſtates and princes. They owe but a nominal ſubjection to the Auſtrians, who leave them in poſſeſſion of all their privileges. Papiſts, Lutherans, Calviniſts, Socinians, Arians, Grecks, Mahometans, and other ſectaries, here enjoy their ſeveral religions. Tranſylvania is thought to add but little to the Auſtrian revenue, though it exports ſome metals and ſalt to Hungary. Hermanſtat is a large, ſtrong, and well-built city, as is Clauſemburg and Wiſſemburg. All ſorts of proviſions here are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. The ſeat of government is at Hermanſtat, and the governor is aſſiſted by a council made up of Roman-catholics, Calviniſts, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by ſummons, and receives the commands of the ſovereign, to whom of late they appear to have been entirely devoted. They have a liberty of making remonſtrances and repreſentations in caſe of grievances.

Tranſylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be ſubdued. Their

deſcendants

deſcendants retain the ſame military character. The population of the country is not aſcertained, but if the Tranſylvanians can bring to the field, as has been aſſerted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants muſt be conſiderable. At preſent its military force is reduced to ſix regiments of 1,500 men each; but it is well known that, during the laſt two wars, in which the houſe of Auſtria was engaged, the Tranſylvanians did great ſervices. Hermanſtat is its only biſhopric, and the Tranſylvanians at preſent ſeem to trouble themſelves little, either about learning or religion, though the Roman catholic is the eſtabliſhed church. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under ſlavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz in 1699, gave the ſovereignty of Tranſylvania to the houſe of Auſtria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal ariſtocracy, which their ſovereigns do not think proper to invade.

Sclavonia lies between the 16th and 22d degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the eaſt, by the Save on the ſouth, and by Kiria in Auſtria on the weſt. The reaſon why Hungary, Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria in thoſe parts, contain a ſurprizing variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is becauſe liberty here made its laſt ſtand againſt the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into thoſe quarters. The thickneſs of the woods, the rapidity of rivers, and the ſtrength of the country favoured their reſiſtance; and their deſcendents, notwithſtanding the power of the Turks, the Auſtrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, ſtill retain the ſame ſpirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the ſovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them moſt at liberty. That they are generous, as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the houſe of Auſtria; which till the laſt two wars, never was ſenſible of their value and valour; inſomuch, that it is well known that they preſerved the pragmatic ſanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave ſo much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word Slave took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, ſo late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Tranſylvania, yet the ravages of war are ſtill viſible in the face of the country, which lies in a great meaſure unimproved. The Sclavonians, from their ignorance, perhaps, are zealous Roman-catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two biſhoprics, that of Roſega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no univerſities. The inhabitants are compoſed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vaſt number of other people, whoſe names were never known even to the Auſtrians themſelves, but from the military muſter-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the two laſt wars.

Croatia lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth. The manners, government, religion, language, and cuſtoms, of the Croats, are ſimilar to thoſe of the Sclavonians and Tranſylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as ſuch are famed in modern hiſtory, under the name of Pandours, and

and various other designations. The truth is, the house of Austria finds its interest in suffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Their towns are blended with each other, there scarcely being any distinction of boundaries. Zagrab (which I have already mentioned) for instance, is thought to be the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians, seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field.

As to the other Austrian dominions, they are so intermixed with those of the Venetians, Turks, and other nations, that it is impossible to separate them, and they shall be mentioned occasionally.

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 700	between	16 and 34 east long.
Breadth 680		46 and 57 north lat.

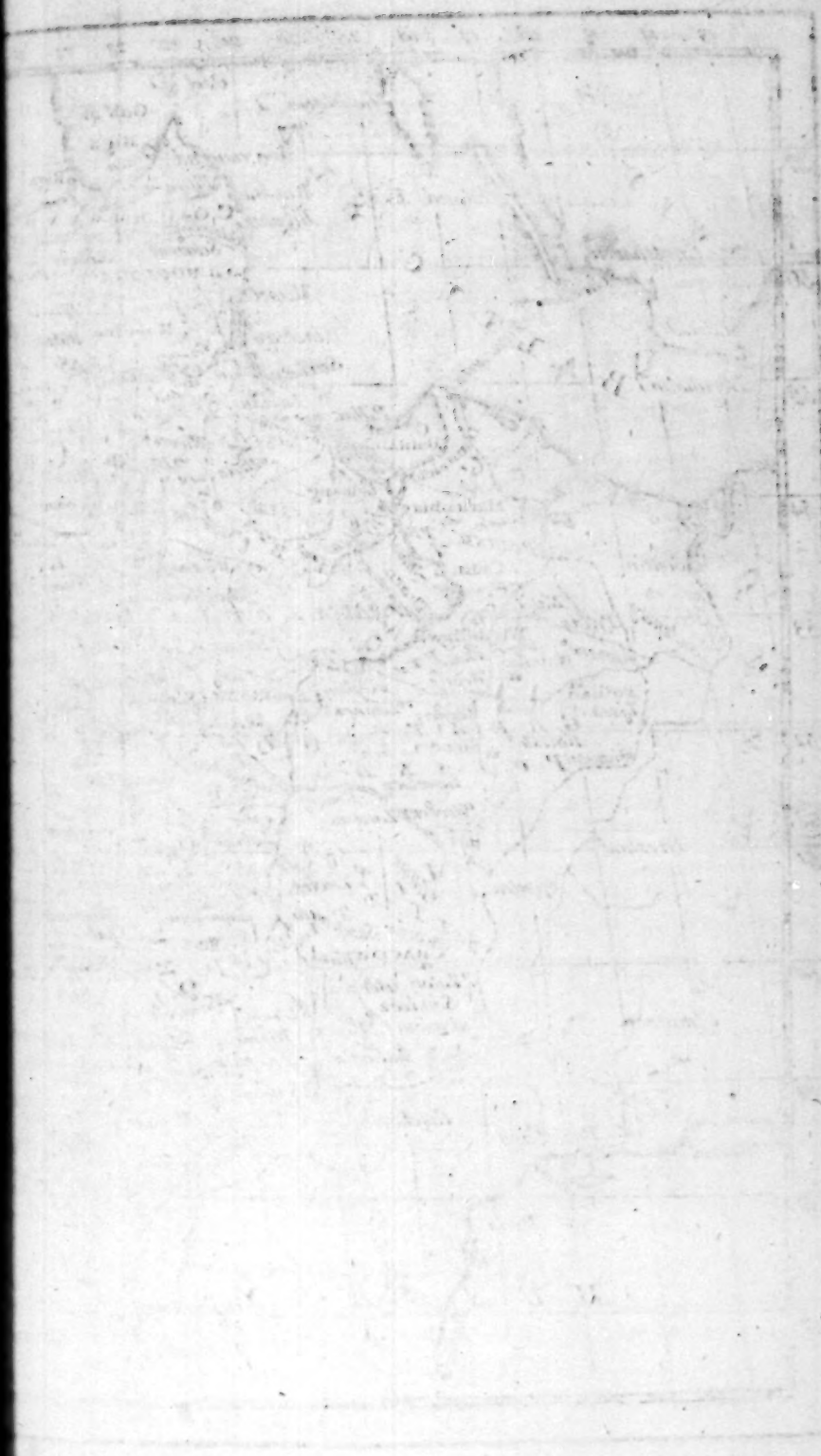
BOUNDARIES.] IT is very difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain with any precision, the real extent of the Polish dominions, through the uncertain possession of its extremities by the Turks, Tartars, Cossacs, and other nations. It is bounded on the north by Livonia, Muscovy, and the Baltic; on the east by Muscovy, and Little Tartary; on the south by Turkey and Hungary; and on the west by Germany.

DIVISIONS.] In a work like this, the reader cannot expect to be entertained with a vast variety of names that form the divisions of this great country. They are not well known even to the natives themselves, and a minute account of them can be of no use either to strangers or natives; but the chief obstacle to such an undertaking, arises from the different claims of the great powers of the north. The geographers, for instance, have placed the kingdom of Prussia in Poland, though it is well known that his Prussian majesty is now the sole sovereign of that part of it called Ducal Prussia, as has been already mentioned. In like manner Courland is comprehended under Poland, though her Russian majesty has the entire disposal of that duchy. The best general division therefore of Poland is as follows.

	Poland.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Papists.	Lithuania,	64,800	333	310	Wilna
	Podolia,	29,000	360	120	Caminieck
	Volhinia,	25,000	3[illegible]5	150	Lucko
	Red Russia,	25,200	232	185	Lemburg
	Great Poland,	19,200	208	180	Gnesna
	Little Poland,	18,000	230	130	Cracow
	Polesia,	14,000	186	97	Breffici
	Masovia,	8,400	152	90	WARSAW E. lon. 21-5. N. lat. 52-15.
	Samogitia,	8,000	155	98	Rasiem
	Prussia Royal,	6,400	118	104	Elbing
	Polachia,	4,000	133	42	Bielh
Protestants.	Courland, subject to Russia,	4,414	174	80	Mittaw.
	Total—	226,414			

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Prussia Royal, are free cities, under the protection of Poland.

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Gothland I.
Osel I.
Gulf of Riga
Oeland I.
Calmar
Carelshaven
Udsted
Bornholm I.
Winsburg
Memel
Labiau
Pillau
Dantzic
Marienburg
Stettin
Culm
Thorn
Nakil
Landsperg
Gnesna
Posnan
Lissa
Kalish
Siradia
Breslau
Oppelen
Olmutz
Vienna
Presburg
Buda
Danube
Caschau
Sandecz
Zator
Cracow
Lublin
Radom
Warsaw
Brzesc
Grodno
Wilna
Samogitia
Courland
Livonia
Prussia
Poland
Hungary
Transylvania
Clausenburg
Weissenburg
Polish Prussia
Great Poland
Lesser Poland
Red Russia
Lithuania
Baltic Sea
Germany
Sweden


Longit. East from London
26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34
57 56 55 54 53 52 51 50 49 48 47
POLAND
LITHUANIA
and
PRUSSIA
British Statute Miles.
20 40 60 100 140
Smolensko
Mogilef
Minsk
Nieper R.
Black Forest
Bog R.
Niester R.
Pruth R.
Bender
Raskow
Kamilnicza
Lampol
Kiof
Zernobil
Radomist
Dinet
Bialgin
Zizersk
Propoisk
Reziza
Mazy
Wyscac
Swiahel
Ostrozeck
Kotelina
Ostrogzsk
Madritoz
Winnica
Braslaw
Ladowa
Tomaszpol
Uman
Zigirin
Kamieniek
Jazy
TURKY
IN EUROPE
11 Hours East from London
T. Kitchin Sculp.

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Sclavonian word ſignifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beaſts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is ſuch as may be expected from ſo extenſive but level a climate. In the north parts it is cold but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlaſting ſnow, which has been known to fall in the midſt of ſummer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being ſo unſettled, either in winter or ſummer, as might be ſuppoſed from ſo northerly a ſituation.

SOIL, PRODUCE AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the ſoil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vaſt quantities that are ſent from thence down the Viſtula, to Dantzic, and are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The paſtures of Poland, eſpecially in Podolia, are rich beyond expreſſion; and it is ſaid one can hardly ſee the cattle that graze in the meadows. Here are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, ſalt and coals; the interior parts of Poland contain foreſts, which furniſh timber in ſo great quantities, that it is employed in houſe-building, inſtead of bricks, ſtone, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and ſome grapes are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine ſeldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clays fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many ſprings is boiled into ſalt. The virtues of a ſpring, in the palatinate of Cracow, which encreaſes and decreaſes with the moon, are ſaid to be wonderful for the preſervation of life, and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and ſome of them to 150 years of age. This ſpring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the ſubtleſt ſpirit of wine. The flame however dances on the ſurface, without heating the water, and if neglected to be extinguiſhed, which it may eaſily be, it communicates itſelf by ſubterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it conſumes; and about 35 years ago, the flames are ſaid to have laſted for three years, before they could be entirely extinguiſhed.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Viſtula or Weyſel, the Neiſter, Neper or Boriſthenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzeſty and Birals, or the White Lake, and is ſaid to dye thoſe who waſh in it of a ſwarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY LAND AND WATER.] The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though ſome are peculiar to itſelf, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable) which in May and June the inhabitants ſweep into ſieves with the dew, and it ſerves for food dreſſed various ways.

The foreſts of Warſovia or Maſovia, contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whoſe fleſh the Poles powder, and eſteem it an excellent diſh. Horſes, wolves, boars, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Poliſh foreſts; and there is a ſpecies of wild horſes and aſſes, that the nobility of the Ukrain, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, reſembling a hart, with ſpots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the beſt furs in the country; but the elk, which

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is common in Poland, as well as in ſome other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The fleſh of the Poliſh elk forms the moſt delicious part of their greateſt feaſts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, the feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough, and broad, like a wild goat's. Naturaliſts have obſerved, that upon diſſecting an elk, there was found in its head ſome large flies, with its brains almoſt eaten away: and it is an obſervation, ſufficiently atteſted, that in the large woods and wilderneſſes of the north, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger ſort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This perſecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling-ſickneſs, by which means it is taken, which would otherwiſe prove no eaſy matter.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

From what has been ſaid of the extent of Poland, it is impoſſible to form an eſtimate of the number of its inhabitants: they undoubtedly, before the breaking out of the preſent war, were very numerous; but they are ſo little known, even at preſent, that numbers of them, in remoter parts, continue ſtill to be heathens, or have very imperfect notions of Chriſtianity. Some have ſuppoſed Poland and Lithuania to contain 15,000,000 of inhabitants, and to be at leaſt as populous as France. When we conſider that the Poles have no colonies, and ſometimes enjoy long tracts of peace, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are ſaid to inhabit their villages, excluſive of thoſe who live in their cities and towns, perhaps this calculation is not exaggerated. The Poles, in their perſons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their ſhapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honeſt, and hoſpitable; and their women ſprightly, yet modeſt, and ſubmiſſive to their huſbands.

They uſually travel on horſeback: a Poliſh gentleman will not travel a ſtone's-throw without his horſe; and they are ſo hardy, that they will ſleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in froſt and ſnow. The Poles never live above ſtairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one ſide, the ſtable on another, the dwelling-houſe on the third, and the gate on the front. They content themſelves with a few ſmall beds, and if any lodge at their houſes, they muſt carry their bedding with them. When they ſit down to dinner or ſupper, they have their trumpets and other muſic playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all ſerving with the moſt profound reſpect; for the nobles who are poor frequently find themſelves under the neceſſity of ſerving them that are rich; but their patron uſually treats them with civility, and permits the eldeſt to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peaſant boy to wait on him, maintained by the maſter of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knifes, forks, nor ſpoons, but every gueſt brings them with him; and they no ſooner ſit down to table, than all the doors are ſhut, and not opened till the company return home. It is uſual for a nobleman to give his ſervant part of his meat, which he eats as he ſtands behind him, and to let him drink out of the ſame cup with himſelf: but this is the leſs extraordinary, if it be conſidered, that theſe ſervants are eſteemed his equal. Bumpers are much in faſhion, both here and in Ruſſia; nor will they eaſily excuſe any perſon from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to deſcribe the

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grandeur and equipages of the Poliſh nobility, and the reader may figure to himſelf an idea of all that is faſtidious, ceremonious, expenſive, and ſhewy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule, for it is not unuſual to ſee the lady of a Poliſh grandee, beſides a coach and ſix, with a great number of ſervants, attended by an old gentleman-uſher, an old gentlewoman for her governante, and a dwarf of each ſex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is ſurrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of all their pomp, however, is proportioned to their eſtates, but each perſon goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, citizens, and peaſants. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that ariſes from the public poſts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another brothers. They do not value titles of honour, but think a gentleman of Poland is the higheſt appellation they can enjoy. They enjoy many conſiderable privileges, and indeed the boaſted Poliſh liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient cuſtom and preſcription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vaſſals; pay no taxes; are ſubject to none but the king; may chuſe whom they will for their king, and lay him under what reſtraints they pleaſe by the *pacta conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of ſome particular towns, can purchaſe lands. In ſhort, they are almoſt entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated ſtate; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. Theſe great privileges make the Poliſh gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, with a deſpotic power, as we have ſaid, over their tenants, whom they call their ſubjects, and transfer or aſſign over with the lands, cattle and furniture. Some of them have eſtates of from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are alſo hereditary ſovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles poſſeſſes above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raiſe 8 or 10,000 men. The houſe of a nobleman is a ſecure aſylum for perſons who have committed any crime; for none muſt preſume to take them from thence by force. They have their horſe and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their antichambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, ſome of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the ſenate are often determined by the ſword. When great men have ſuits at law, the diet, or rather tribunals, decide them; yet the execution of the ſentence muſt be left to the longeſt ſword; for the juſtice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raiſe 5 or 6000 men of a ſide, plunder and burn one another's cities, and beſiege caſtles and forts; for they think it below them to ſubmit to the ſentence of judges, without a field battle. As to the peaſants, they are born ſlaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peaſant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peaſant equal in value. A nobleman who is deſirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden houſe, in which he ſettles a peaſant and his family, giving him a cow, two horſes, a certain

number of geeſe, hens, &c. and as much corn as is ſufficient to maintain him the firſt year, and to improve for his own future ſubſiſtence and the advantage of his lord.

The peaſants having no property, all their acquiſitions ſerve only to enrich their maſter. They are indiſpenſibly obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permiſſion of their lords; and they are expoſed to the diſmal, and frequently fatal effects, of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical maſters, who oppreſs them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuſe it in the moſt groſs and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being expoſed to the moſt brutal treatment. One bleſſing, however, attends the wretched ſituation of the Poliſh peaſants, which is their inſenſibility. Born ſlaves, and accuſtomed from their infancy to hardſhips and ſevere labour, they ſcarce entertain an idea of better circumſtances and more liberty. They regard their maſters as a ſuperior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their ſevere lot. Chearful and contented with their condition, they are ready upon every occaſion to ſacrifice themſelves and their families for their maſter, eſpecially if the latter takes care to feed them well. They think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. I have been the more circumſtantial in deſcribing the manners and preſent ſtate of the Poles, as they bear a near reſemblance, in many particulars, to thoſe of our own country and Europe in general during the feudal ages.

DRESS.] The dreſs of the Poles is pretty ſingular. They cut the hair of their heads ſhort, and ſhave their beards, leaving only large whiſkers. They wear a veſt which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur and girded with a ſaſh, but the ſleeves ſit as cloſe to their arms as a waiſtcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. They wear a fur cap; their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtbands, and they wear neither ſtock nor neckcloth. Inſtead of ſhoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin ſoles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a ſabre or cutlaſs, by their ſides. When they appear on horſeback, they wear over all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the beſt quality wear ſables, and others the ſkins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty ſuits of clothes, all as rich as poſſible, and which deſcend from father to ſon.

Were it not for our own partiality to ſhort dreſſes, we muſt acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturеſque and majeſtic. Charles II. of England, thought of introducing the Poliſh dreſs into his court, and, after his reſtoration, wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of Engliſh broad-cloth, but diſcontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men; but ſome people of faſhion, of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes. As to the peaſants, in winter they wear a ſheeps-ſkin with the wool inwards, and in ſummer a thick coarſe cloth; but as to linen they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker part to guard the ſoles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

The inns of this country are long ſtables built with boards and covered with ſtraw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end, but none can lodge there, becauſe of flies and other vermin; ſo that ſtrangers generally chuſe rather to lodge among the horſes. Travellers are obliged to carry proviſions with them; and when foreigners want a ſupply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with neceſſaries.

RELIGION.] No country has bred more deiſts and free-thinkers in religious matters than Poland: the number of proteſtants, conſiſting of Lutherans and Calviniſts, in their republic is very conſiderable, and when theſe are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called Diſſidents. At the ſame time, the Poliſh nobility, and the bulk of the nation, are tenacious of the Roman-catholic religion, even to enthuſiaſm, witneſs the preſent oppreſſive war carried on in Poland. The treaty of Oliva, which was concluded in 1660, and tolerated the diſſidents, was guarantied by the principal powers in Europe, but has ſince been ſo far diſregarded by the Poles, that about the year 1724, they made a public maſſacre, under the ſanction of law, of the proteſtants at Thorn, for which no ſatisfaction has been as yet obtained. The ſame may be ſaid of the other numerous proviſions made for the protection of the proteſtants, who were perſecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind have been tolerated and encouraged. The monaſteries in Poland are by ſome writers ſaid to be 576, and the nunneries 117, beſides 246 ſeminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The Poliſh clergy, in general, are illiterate bigots, and the monks are the moſt profligate of mankind. They are often ſeen drunk, and led from taverns, without apprehending any diſgrace to their order, or dreading the cenſure of their ſuperiors, who require equal indulgence. After what has been ſaid, the reader cannot be at a loſs to account for the vaſt ſway which the clergy at this time appear to have in Poland in ſpite of treaties and capitulations. Their diſaffection to their king is, however, not to be imputed entirely to religion, but to the march of the Ruſſians into the heart of the republic.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Poland contains two archbiſhoprics; Gueſna, and Lemburg. The archbiſhop of Gueſna, beſides being primate, and during an interreign, prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other biſhops, particularly Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Poliſh language is a dialect of Sclavonic, and is both harſh and unharmonious, on account of the vaſt number of conſonants it employs, ſome of their words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Ruſſian and German tongues are underſtood in the provinces bordering on thoſe countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great reſtorer of the true aſtronomical ſyſtem, Voſſius, and ſome other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet its ſoil is far from being favourable to learning. Latin is ſpoken, tho' incorrectly, by the common people in ſome provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever ſhewn for learning, the ſervitude of the lower people, and the univerſal ſuperſtition among all ranks of men, theſe circumſtances have wonderfully retarded, and notwithſtanding the liberal efforts of his preſent

ſent majeſty, ſtill continue to retard the progreſs of letters in this kingdom.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Poland are thoſe of Cracow, Poſnia, or Poſen, and Wilna. The firſt conſiſts of eleven colleges, and has the ſuperviſorſhip of 14 grammar-ſchools diſperſed through the city. That of Poſnia is rather a jeſuit's college than an univerſity. We know nothing particular of Wilna; and all of them, by this time, are probably ruined.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The frequent incurſions of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations, into Poland, probably forced the women ſometimes to leave their children expoſed in the woods, where we muſt ſuppoſe they were nurſed by bears and other wild beaſts, otherwiſe it is difficult to account for their ſubſiſtence. It is certain that ſuch beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, diveſted of all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken they generally went on all fours: but it is ſaid, that ſome of them have, by proper management, attained to the uſe of ſpeech, but this perhaps may be queſtioned.

The ſalt-mines near the city of Cracow conſiſt of wonderful caverns ſeveral hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deſerts of Podolia, are ſeveral grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preſerved, though buried a vaſt many years ſince, being neither ſo hard nor ſo black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they uſed to wear. It is thought that this preſerving quality is owing to the nature of the ſoil, which is dry and ſandy. Poland can boaſt of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themſelves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, ſilver, and enamelled veſſels, preſented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preſerved in the cathedral of Gueſna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Warſaw lies on the Viſtula, and almoſt in the centre of Poland. It is the royal reſidence; but though it contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, beſides churches and convents, it has little or no commerce. The ſame may be ſaid of Cracow, which is the capital (though that honour is diſputed by Warſaw) for we are told, that notwithſtanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich ſalt mines, and is ſaid to contain 50 churches and convents, its commerce is inconſiderable.

Dantzic is the capital of Poliſh Pruſſia, and is famous in hiſtory on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanſeatic aſſociation, commonly called the Hanſe-towns. It is ſituated on the Viſtula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city; its houſes generally are five ſtories high; and many of its ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is ſtill a moſt eminent commercial city, although it ſeems to be ſomewhat paſt its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the preſident de Thou wrote his much eſteemed *Hiſtoria ſui Temporis*; wherein, under the year 1607, he ſo highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, with a ſmall adjacent territory about 40 miles round it, under the protection of the king and the republic of

of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romaniſts and Calviniſts be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 pariſhes, with many convents and hoſpitals, and is ſuppoſed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants. Its own ſhipping is numerous, but the foreign ſhips conſtantly reſorting to it are more ſo, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year alſo 1288 Poliſh veſſels came down the Viſtula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchleſs granaries; from whence that grain is diſtributed to many foreign nations; Poland being juſtly deemed the greateſt magazine of corn in all Europe, and Dantzic the greateſt port for diſtributing it every where: beſides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval ſtores, and vaſt variety of other articles.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their maſters, and have ſometimes been under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch, but of late they have ſhewed a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Though ſtrongly fortified, and poſſeſſed of 150 large braſs cannon, it could not, through its ſituation, ſtand a regular ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences.

The reaſon why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, enjoy privileges, both civil and religious, very different from thoſe of the reſt of Poland is, becauſe not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themſelves under the protection of Poland; but reſerving to themſelves large and ample privileges, which they ſtill enjoy.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Some linen and woollen cloths, and hard wares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland; but commerce is entirely confined to the city of Dantzic, and their other towns on the Viſtula and the Baltic.

CONSTITUTION and GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this ſubject, but it remains in a great meaſure ſtill unknown. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warſaw. They elect him on horſeback; and in caſe there ſhould be a refractory minority, the majority has no control over them but to cut them in pieces with their ſabres. Immediately after his election, he ſigns the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; ſo that in fact he is no more than preſident of the ſenate, which is compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop of Lemburg, fifteen biſhops, and 130 laymen, conſiſting of the great officers of ſtate, the palatines, and caſtellans.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary: the former meet once in two, and ſometimes three years; the latter is ſummoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one diſſenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

The ſtaroſts properly are governors and judges in particular ſtaroſties or diſtricts, though ſome enjoy this title without any juriſdiction at all. The palatines and caſtellans, beſides being ſenators, are lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants in their reſpective palatinates.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can ſit but ſix weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets, held in different diſtricts. The king ſends them letters containing the heads of the buſineſs that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of

each palatinate may ſit in the dietine, and chuſe nuncios or deputies, to carry their reſolutions to the grand diet. The great diet conſiſts of the king, ſenators, and thoſe deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and 70 for Pruſſia; and it meets twice at Warſaw and once at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland.

The king may nominate the great officers of ſtate, but they are accountable only to the ſenate; neither can he diſplace them when once appointed. When he is abſent from Poland, his place is ſupplied by the archbiſhop of Gueſna, and if that ſee is vacant, by the biſhop of Ploſko.

The ten great officers of ſtate in Poland, who are ſenators, are, the two great marſhals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the treaſurer of the kingdom, and the treaſurer of the duchy; the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the kingdom; and the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the duchy.

Such are the outlines of this motley conſtitution, which is new modelled with almoſt every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* which he is obliged to ſign; ſo that nothing of it can be ſaid with certainty, and leſs at this time than ever; there being now a total diſſolution of all order in Poland. It muſt, however, be acknowledged, that in the imperfect ſketch I have exhibited, we can diſcern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet inveſt him with an ample prerogative, are worthy of a wiſe people. The inſtitutions of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other proviſions in the republic. It laboured, however, even in its beſt ſtate, under incurable diſorders. The exerciſe of the *veto*, or the tribunitial negative, that is veſted in every member of a diet or dietine, muſt always be deſtructive of order and government. It is founded, however, upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited juriſdiction which the great lords, in former ages, uſed to enjoy all over Europe. The want of ſubordination in the executive parts of the conſtitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemiſh which perhaps may be impracticable to remove, as it can be done only by their own conſent. After all, when we examine the beſt accounts of the preſent conſtitution of Poland, and compare them with the ancient hiſtory of Great Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful ſimilarity between what theſe were formerly, and what Poland is at preſent. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwiſe improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent on the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their ſovereign, and to maintain their unequal privileges which are ſo hurtful to the community. If a nobleman of great abilities, and who happened to poſſeſs an extenſive territory within the kingdom, ſhould be elected ſovereign, he might perhaps, by a proper uſe of the prerogatives of diſpoſing of all places of truſt and profit, and of ennobling the plebeians, which are already veſted in the crown, eſtabliſh the ſucceſſion in his own family, and deliver the Poles from thoſe perpetual convulſions, which muſt ever attend an elective kingdom.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is ſtinted in the political exerciſe of his prerogative, yet his revenue is ſufficient to maintain him and his houſhold with great ſplendor, as he pays no troops, or officers of ſtate, nor even his body guards. The preſent king had a million and half of florins ſettled upon him by the commiſſion of ſtate; and the income of his predeceſſors generally amounted to 140,000 l. ſterling. The public revenues ariſe chiefly from the crown-lands, the ſalt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow and elſewhere computed at 40,000 l. antient tolls and cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirſhau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow and diſtrict of Niepoliomicz.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Poliſh nobility is ſuch, that they always appear in the field on horſeback; and it is ſaid that Poland can raiſe 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry, and that with eaſe; but it muſt be underſtood that ſervants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are ſoon diſmiſſed, becauſe they muſt be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Poliſh grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it conſiſts of 36,000 men, in Poland, and 12,000 in Lithuania, cantoned on the crown-lands. The ploſpolite conſiſts of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, excepting the chancellor, and the ſtaroſts of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occaſions, but he cannot keep them above ſix weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Poliſh huſſars are the fineſt and moſt ſhewy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancerns; and both thoſe bodies wear defenſive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The reſt of their cavalry are armed with muſkets and heavy ſcimiters. After all that has been ſaid, the Poliſh cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field, for though the men are brave, and their horſes excellent, they are ſtrangers to all diſcipline; and when drawn out, notwithſtanding all the authority their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himſelf, have over them, they are oppreſſive and deſtructive to the court. It is certain, notwithſtanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by diſcipline, and that on various occaſions, particularly under John Sobieſki, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. It did not ſuit the Saxon princes, who ſucceeded that hero, to encourage a martial ſpirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct has been ſince, and is now ſeverely felt in that devoted country.

ORDERS.] The order of the White Eagle was inſtituted by Auguſtus II. in the year 1705. Its enſign is a croſs of gold, enamelled with red, and appendant to a blue ribbon. The motto, *Pro fide, rege et lege.*

HISTORY.] Poland, of old, was divided into many ſmall ſtates or principalities, each almoſt independent of another, though they generally had ſome prince who was paramount over the reſt. In the year 830, a peaſant, one Piaſtus, was elected to the ſovereign throne. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was ſo long and auſpicious, that every native Pole who has been ſince elected king, is called a piaſt.

From this period to the close of the 14th century, we have no certain records of the history of Poland. Jagellon, who at this time mounted the throne, was grand duke of Livonia, and a pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Christian, but was at pains to bring over his subjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland, which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preserved in his family, until the male line extinguished in Sigismund Augustus, in 1552. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. These were Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Austria. The French interest prevailed; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately into France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had espoused Maximilian's interest, endeavoured once more to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Poles being desirous to chuse a prince who might reside among them, made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania; who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish himself on the throne, by marrying Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, and of the royal house of Jagellon. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of the Cossacks, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed the Uckrain, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles chose Sigismund, son of John, king of Sweden, by Catherine, sister of Sigismund II. for their king.

Sigismund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death, but being expelled, as we have already seen in the history of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war ensued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigismund being secured in the throne of Poland, aspired to that of Russia as well as Sweden, but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. The Poles were afterwards engaged in a variety of wars against all their neighbours, with various success, and about the year 1657, the elector of Brandenburg had Ducal Prussia (a province in Poland) confirmed to him by John Casimir, the last descendant of the ancient kings of Poland. In 1673, John Sobieski, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who had supported the credit of the Polish arms against the Turks, was chosen king, and in 1676, he was so successful against the infidels, that he forced them to remit a tribute they had, in the last reign, imposed upon Poland, but they kept possession of Kaminieck. In 1683, Sobieski, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, was so public spirited, as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Christendom against the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna, and making a terrible slaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious services, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopald.

Sobieski returning to Poland, continued the war against the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the senate, who suspected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great distractions upon Sobieski's death. Many confederacies

federacies were formed, but all parties ſeemed inclined to exclude the Sobieſki family. In the mean while, Poland was inſulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to ſale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the moſt liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almoſt ſure, he was diſappointed by the intrigues of the queen dowager, in favour of her younger ſon prince Alexander Sobieſki, for which ſhe was driven from Warſaw to Dantzic. All of a ſudden, Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, ſtarted up as a candidate, and after a ſham election being proclaimed by the biſhop of Cujavia, he took poſſeſſion of Cracow, with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city, in 1697. The prince of Conti made ſeveral unſucceſsful efforts to re-eſtabliſh his intereſt, and pretended that he had been actually choſen, but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe ſeemed to acquieſce in the election of Auguſtus. The manner in which this prince was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden, and afterwards reſtored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related. It was not till the year 1712, that Auguſtus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and diſagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Staniſlaus, their countryman, who had been placed on the throne by Charles, and were perpetually forming conſpiracies and plots againſt Auguſtus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural ſon prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was choſen duke of Courland; but Auguſtus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, againſt the power of Ruſſia, and the jealouſy of the Poles. Auguſtus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, after he had done all he could to inſure the ſucceſſion of Poland to his ſon Auguſtus II. (or, as he is called by ſome, III.) This occaſioned a war, in which the French king maintained the intereſt of Staniſlaus, now his father-in-law, who was re-elected to the throne, by a conſiderable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Auguſtus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Ruſſians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he eſcaped with great difficulty into France. I have, in other parts of this work, mentioned the war between Auguſtus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Ruſſia and Auſtria, and his preſent Pruſſian majeſty. It is ſufficient to ſay, that though Auguſtus was a mild moderate prince, and did every thing to ſatisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts, and all he obtained from them was merely ſhelter, when his Pruſſian majeſty drove him from his capital, and electorate. Auguſtus died at Dreſden, in 1763, upon which count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki, rather on account of his perſonal merits, and the impatience of the Poles under the Saxon yoke, than any pre-eminence of birth or family, was unanimouſly choſen king of Poland by the name of Staniſlaus Auguſtus. As he was eminently favoured by the Ruſſians, the capitulation which he ſigned at the time of his election, and other acts of his government, were thought too favourable for the proteſtants and the Greek diſſidents, the latter of whom claim her imperial majeſty of Ruſſia, as their protector and patroneſs. Her having an army lying, at that time, in Poland, gave a handle for many confederacies being formed by the catholics againſt Poniatowſki. At firſt they were cruſhed with prodigious ſlaughter, and to the deſolation of the country, by the Ruſſians, the king not daring to truſt even

the Poles of his own party, for protection. The heads of the confederacy, at last, most unnaturally put themselves under the protection of the grand signior, who readily embraced their cause, proclaimed war against Russia, and invaded Poland with a powerful army, and it is at this time a theatre of as much misery, blood, and devastation, as perhaps ever was known in history *.

SWITZERLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 260	between	6 and 11 east longitude.
Breadth 100		45 and 48 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Alsace and Suabia in Germany, on the north; by the lake of Constance, Tirol, and Trent, on the east; by Italy, on the south; and by France, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, as follows.

Switzerland.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
	Berne	2,346	111	87	Berne
	Zurich	728	34	33	Zurich
Calvinists.	Schaffhausen	140	23	9	Schaffhause
	Basil	240	21	18	BASIL (47-40 N. Lat. 7-40 E. Lon.)
	Lucern	460	33	35	Lucern
	Underwald	270	23	16	Stantz
	Uri	612	48	21	Altorf
Papists.	Suisse	250	27	13	Suisse
	Friburg	370	24	21	Friburg
	Zug	112	18	10	Zug
	Solothurn	253	31	24	Solothurn
Calvin. and Papists.	Appenzel	270	23	21	Apenzel
	Glaris	257	24	18	Glaris
	Baden				Baden
	Bremgarten	216	26	12	Bremgarten
The subjects	Mellingen				Mellingen
of the Switzers. Calvinists and Papists.	Rhintal	40	20	5	Rheineck
	Turgow	119	18	11	Frowanfield
	Lugano				Lugano
	Locarno	850	52	30	Locarno
	Mendris				Mendris
	Magia				Magia
	Total—	7,533			

Allies of the Switzers; the county of the Grisons, St. Gaul Repub. St. Gaul abbey, Tockenburg, Valais, Neufchatel, Mulhausen, and Geneva, N. Lat. 46-20, E. Lon. 6.

AIR, SOIL, SEASONS AND WATER.] This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, the frosts are consequently bitter in winter, the

* Stanislaus Augustus (late count Poniatowski) was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, resided some time in London; and is a fellow of the Royal Society.

the hills being covered with ſnow, ſometimes all the year long. In ſummer the inequality of the ſoil renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons; on one ſide of thoſe mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, when well cultivated, as they generally are. The country is ſubject to rains and tempeſts, for which reaſon public granaries are every where erected to ſupply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often deſcends from the mountains in large or ſmall cataracts, which have a pleaſing effect.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which riſes in the mountains of this country, the Aar, the Ruſs, the Jun, the Rhone, the Thur and the Oglios. The lakes are thoſe of Geneva, Conſtance, Thun, Lucern, Zurich, Neufchatel and Biende.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, cryſtal, virgin ſulphur, and ſprings of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Sheep and cattle are the chief animal productions of this country; corn and wood, and ſome wine, with pot-herbs of almoſt every kind, are likewiſe found here. The produce, however, of all thoſe arricles, are no more than ſufficient for the inhabitants, who are too far removed from water-carriage to be profited by the ſtately timber that grows in their woods. They have vaſt plenty of game, fiſh and fowl.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the beſt accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induſtrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and attachment to the cauſe they undertake. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. All the cantons are regimented in a manner, that contributes equally to the ſafety and profit of the inhabitants, who ſupply foreign powers with excellent ſoldiers. They are ſo jealous of their liberties, that they diſcourage foreigners from ſettling among them. Their nobility and gentry diſdain the profeſſion of trade and manufactures. It is ſaid, that in many places of Switzerland, the inhabitants, eſpecially thoſe towards France, begin to degenerate from the antient ſimplicity of their manners and dreſs. The cuſtoms and diverſions are of the warlike and active kind, and the magiſtrates of moſt of the cantons, impoſe fines upon plays, gaming, and even dancing, excepting at marriages.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiſs cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Thoſe differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which ſeem now to have ſubſided. Zuing, commonly called Zuinglius, was the apoſtle of proteſtantiſm in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther, and Calvin, only in a few ſpeculative points; ſo that Calviniſm is ſaid to be the religion of the proteſtant Swiſſes.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moſt common is German. The Swiſſes, who border upon France, ſpeak a baſtard French, as thoſe near Italy do a corrupted Latin, or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, a Frenchman, whoſe name is ſo well known in all proteſtant countries, inſtituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high eſteem by the moſt learned of that

country. The ingenious and elegant Rouſſeau, whoſe works the preſent age have received with ſo much approbation, is a citizen of Geneva. Rouſſeau has given a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a proſe-writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin de Village* in particular is much eſteemed; but in this he has acted with his uſual conſiſtency, in firſt abuſing the French muſic, and then compoſing an opera.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſity of Baſil contains a noble library, ſome valuable manuſcripts, and an excellent collection of medals. The other univerſities are thoſe of Bern, Lauſanne and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Every diſtrict of a canton in this mountainous country, preſents the traveller with a natural curioſity; ſometimes in the ſhape of wild but beautiful proſpects, interſperſed with lofty buildings, wonderful hermitages, eſpecially one two leagues from Friburg. This was formed by the hands of a ſingle hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greateſt curioſity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour, 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, ceiling, all cut out of the rock. The marcaſites, falſe diamonds, and other ſtones, found in thoſe mountains, are juſtly ranked among the natural curioſities of the country. The ruins of Cæſar's wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from mount Jura, to the banks of lake Leman, are ſtill diſcernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been diſcovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boaſts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of jeſuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuſcripts, antiques, and curioſities of all kinds.

CITIES.] Of theſe the moſt conſiderable is the city of Bern, ſtanding on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is ſaid, forms almoſt a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occaſion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided in arſenals, bridges, and public edifices. Baſil is accounted by ſome the capital of all Switzerland.

I ſhall here, to prevent a repetition, mention the city of Geneva, which is an aſſociate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itſelf is an independent ſtate, and republic. The city is well built, and well fortified, contains 30,000 inhabitants, moſt of whom are Calviniſts. It is ſituated upon the efflux of the Rhone, from the large fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the profeſſors of its univerſity, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants. By its ſituation, it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artiſts; ſo that the proteſtants, eſpecially ſuch as are of a liberal turn, eſteem it a moſt delightful place.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, ſtockings, handkerchiefs, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning to fabricate, notwithſtanding their ſumptuary laws, ſilks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progreſs in thoſe manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a proſpect of being able ſoon to make ſome exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Theſe are very complicated heads, though belonging to the ſame body, being partly monarchical, partly ariſtocratical, and partly democratical. The biſhop of Baſil, and abbot of St. Gaul, are ſovereigns. Every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction, but thoſe of Bern, Zurich, and Lucern, with other dependencies, are ariſtocratical; thoſe of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. But even thoſe ariſtocracies, and democracies, differ in their particular modes of government. Perhaps in fact the democratical and popular part, as well as the ariſtocratical, are governed by their ſeveral leaders among the nobility, gentry, or eminent citizens.

The confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comprehends three diviſions. The firſt are the Swiſſes, properly ſo called. The ſecond, are the Griſons, or the ſtates, confederated with the Swiſſes, for their common protection. The third, are thoſe prefectures, which, though ſubject to the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each its own particular magiſtrates. Every canton forms within itſelf a little republic: but when any controverſy ariſes, that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which ſits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majority. The general diet conſiſts of two deputies from each canton, beſides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gaul, and the cities of St. Gaul and Bienne.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that conſtitute the Swiſs confederacy, renders it difficult to give a preciſe account of their revenues. Thoſe of the canton of Bern, are ſaid to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and thoſe of Zurich to 150,000, the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after defraying the neceſſary expences of government, is laid up as a common ſtock, and it has been ſaid, that the Swiſſes are poſſeſſed of 500,000 l. ſterling in the Engliſh funds, beſides thoſe in other banks.

The revenues ariſe; 1. from the profits of the demeſne lands; 2. the tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. cuſtoms and duties on merchandize; 4. the revenues ariſing from the ſale of ſalt, and ſome caſual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs cantons conſiſts of 13,400 men, raiſed according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wiſdom with which this force is raiſed and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign ſtates and princes are ſupplied, ſo as to benefit the ſtate, without any prejudice to its population.

HISTORY.] The preſent Swiſſes and Griſons, as has been already mentioned, are the deſcendents of the antient Helvetii, ſubdued by Julius Cæſar. Their mountainous uninviting ſituation, formed a better ſecurity for their liberties, than their forts or armies, and the ſame is their caſe at preſent. They continued long under little better than a nominal ſubjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with ſo much rigour, that they petitioned him againſt the cruelty of his governors. This ſerved only to redouble the hardſhips of the people, and one of Albert's Auſtrian governors Griſler, in the wantonneſs of tyranny, ſet up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much reſpect as to

himſelf. One William Tell, being obſerved to paſs frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent markſman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unleſs he cleft an apple upon his ſon's head, at a certain diſtance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Griſler aſking him the meaning of another arrow he ſaw ſtuck in his belt, he bluntly anſwered, that it was intended to his [Griſler's] heart, if he had killed his ſon. Tell was condemned to priſon upon this, but making his eſcape, he watched his opportunity, and ſhot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

Notwithſtanding the above ſtory, which might be true in the whole or part, it ſeems to be certain that the revolt of the Swiſſes from the Auſtrian tyranny had been planned among ſome noble patriots for ſome time before. Their meaſures were ſo juſt, and their courage ſo intrepid, that they ſoon found a union of ſeveral cantons, which daily encreaſed, and repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till by the treaty of Weſtphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent ſtate. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swiſſes, I muſt refer the reader to the hiſtories of Europe.

SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

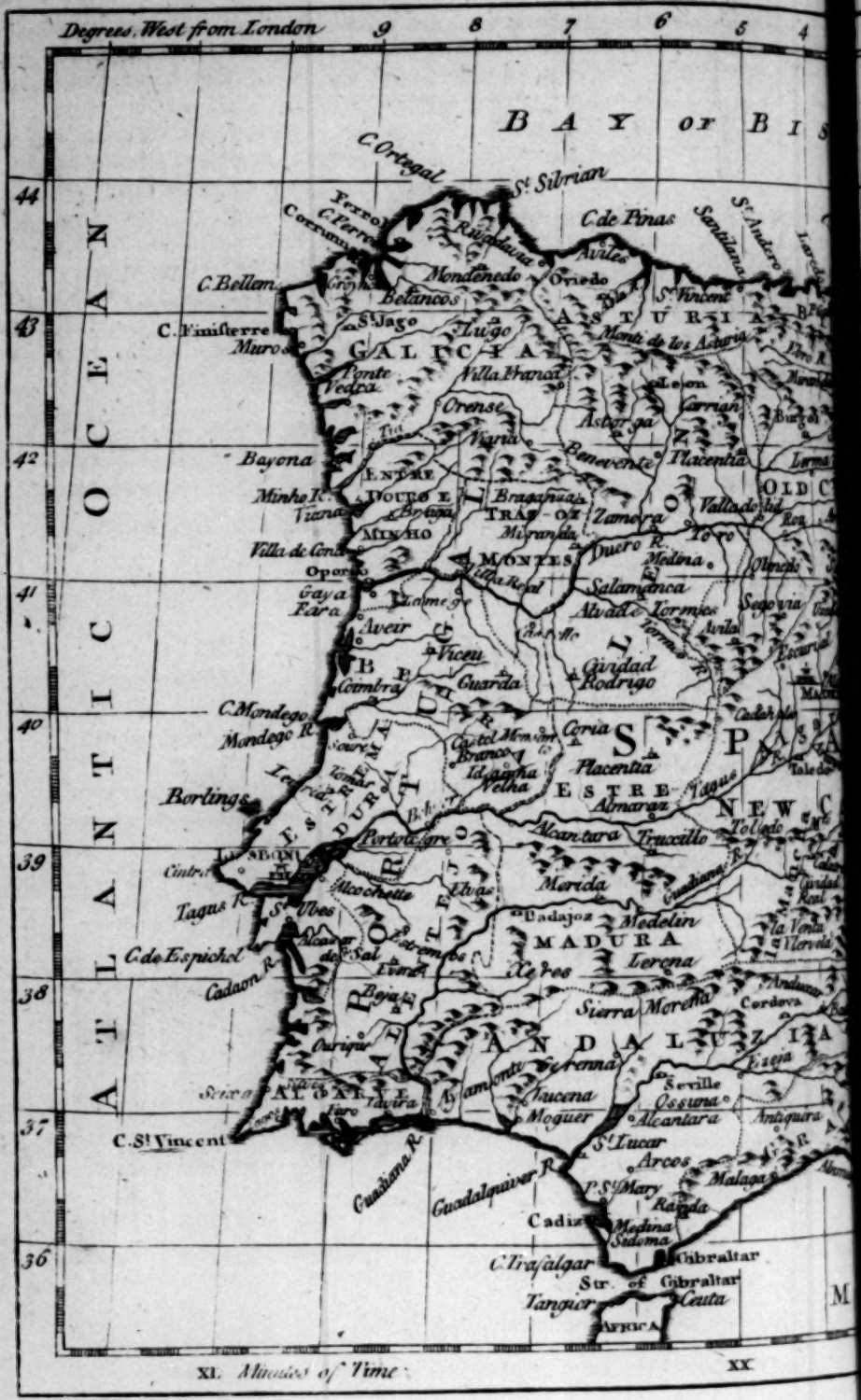
Miles.		Degrees.
Length near 700	between	10 W. and 3 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 500		36 and 44 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded on the weſt by Portugal and the Atlantic ocean; by the Mediterranean, on the eaſt; by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from France, on the north; and by the ſtrait of the ſea of Gibraltar, on the ſouth.

It is now divided into fourteen diſtricts, beſides iſlands in the Mediterranean.

Spain.	Countries Names.	Square miles.	Length	Breadth	Chief cities.	
Papiſts.	Caſtile, New	27,840	220	180	MADRID	N. Lat. 40—30, W. Lon. 4—15
	Andaluſia	16,500	273	135	Seville	
	Caſtile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos	
	Arragon	13,818	190	105	Saragoſa	
	Eſtremadura	12,600	180	123	Badajos	
	Galicia	12,000	165	120	Compoſtella	
	Leon	11,200	167	96	Leon	
	Catalonia	9000	172	110	Barcelona	
	Granada	8100	200	45	Granada	
	Valencia	6800	180	75	Valencia	
	Biſcay and Ipuſcoa	4760	140	55	Bilboa	
	Aſturia	4600	124	55	Oviedo	
	Murcia	3600	87	65	Murcia	
	Upper Navarre	3000	92	45	Pampelona	
In the Mediterranean.	Majorca I.	1400	58	40	Majorca	
	Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica	
	Total—	150,263				

The town and fortreſs of Gibraltar, ſubject to Great Britain.


Degrees West from London
9
8
7
6
5
4
BAY or BIS
C. Ortegal
St. Sibrian
C de Pinas
St. Andero
Santillana
Ferrol
C. Finisterre
Muro
Santiago
Lugo
Betanços
Mondenedo
Oviedo
Avilés
C. Bellem
St. Vincent
ASTURIA
Monts de las Asturias
GALICIA
Pont Vedra
Villa Franca
Orense
Astorga
León
Carrion
Burgos
Bayona
Minho R.
Viana
ENTRE DOURO E MINHO
Braganza
TRAS OZ MONTES
Miranda
Zamora
Toro
Valladolid
Benavente
Placentia
Lerma
OLD C
Villa de Conde
Oporto
Gaya
Para
Aveir
Viseu
Coimbra
Guarda
Villa Real
Salamanca
Alva de Tormes
Medina
Segovia
Avila
Escurial
Girdad Rodrigo
C. Mondego
Mondego R.
Soure
Leyria
Tomar
Thomar R.
Castel Mendo
Branco
Idanha Velha
Coria
Placentia
ESTRE
Almaraz
Tagus
NEW C
Toledo
Borlings
Porto Alegre
Alcantara
Truxillo
Lisbon
Cintra
Tagus R.
St. Ubes
Alcacer do Sal
Setuval
Alcochete
Elvas
Merida
Badajoz
Medelin
MADURA
Cadiz
C. de Espichel
Cadaon R.
Estremos
Xeres
Lerena
Arcadians
Bejar
Sierra Morena
Cordova
Ourique
ANDALUZIA
Xerena
Seville
Ossuna
Antiquira
Serra
ALGARVE
Tavira
Faro
Ayamonte
Lucena
Moguer
Alcantara
C. St. Vincent
Guadiana R.
St. Lucar
Arcos
Malaga
Guadalquiver R.
P. St. Mary
Randa
Cadiz
Medina Sidonia
C. Trafalgar
Gibraltar
Str. of Gibraltar
Tangier
Ceuta
AFRICA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
44
43
42
41
40
39
38
37
36
XI. Minutes of Time
XX


Longit. E. fr. London
British Statute Miles
Bourdeaux
Garonne R.
Thoulose
Montpellier
Narbon
Rhone R.
Baronne
Perpignan
Collioure
C. Creuse
Rosses
Palamos
Blanes
Barcelona
Tarragonna
Ebra R.
Tortosa
Peniscola
Mt. Colibre
Morviedra
Valencia
Alicant
Segura R.
Carthagena
C. de Palos
Almacaron
C. de Gates
Alboran I.
Pamplona
Jaca
Huesca
Balbastro
Fraga
Lerida
Balaguer
Cardona
Monblan
Saragossa
Calatajud
Daroca
Montalvan
Maraxin
Terruel
Vt. Mar Real
Xativa
Gandia
Alcira
Denia
Alted
Murcia
Tavara
Almanza
Albacete
Yvica
Formentera
C. St. Martin
Majorca
Alcudia
Minorca
Calrera
SPAIN
and
PORTUGAL
by
Tho. Kitchin
Meridian of London

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Heſperia, as well as Hiſpania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior, or hither part, contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largeſt part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whoſe ancient hiſtory, at leaſt the interior part of it, we know leſs of than that of Spain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoxial rains, the air of Spain is dry and ſerene, but exceſſive hot in the ſouthern provinces in June, July, and Auguſt. The vaſt mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreſhing breezes that come from them in the ſouthernmoſt parts; though thoſe towards the north and north-eaſt, are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller ſhiver.

So few writers have treated of the interior parts of Spain, that the public knew little of them till within theſe fifty years. The ſoil of Spain, it is well known, was formerly fruitful in corn, but the natives now find a ſcarcity of it, by their diſuſe of tillage, through their indolence; the cauſes of which I ſhall explain afterwards. It produces, in many places almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the richeſt and moſt delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, and figs. Her wines, eſpecially her ſack and ſherry, are in high requeſt among foreigners; and Dr. Buſching ſays, that the inhabitants of Malaga, and the neighbouring country, export yearly wines and raiſins, to the amount of 268,759 l. ſterling. Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromiſing, becauſe uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains ſuch a number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; ſuch are the generous qualities of its ſoil. Even ſugar canes thrive in Spain; and it yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk, in great abundance. A late writer, Uſtariz, a Spaniard himſelf, computes the number of ſhepherds in Spain to the amount of 40,000; and has given us a moſt curious detail of their œconomy, their changes of paſture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Thoſe ſheep-walks afford the fineſt of wool, and are a treaſure in themſelves. Some of the mountains in Spain are cloathed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taſte of their kids and ſheep ſo exquiſitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds ſo much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its ſilk amounts to 200,000 l. a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and leſs to induſtry.

All over Spain the waters, that are medicinal, are found to have ſuch healing qualities, that they are outdone by thoſe of no country in Europe; and the incloſing, and encouraging a reſort to them, grows every day more and more in vogue, eſpecially at Alhamar in Granada.

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impoſſible to ſpecify theſe, they are ſo numerous; the chief are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over theſe mountains there are only five narrow paſſages to

France. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic ocean, ſouth of Cape Finiſtere. No Engliſhman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying oppoſite to it in Africa.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS AND STRAITS.] Theſe are the Douro, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo, formerly celebrated by the name of the Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic ocean below Liſbon; the Guadiana falls into the ſame ocean near Cape Finiſtere; as does the Guadalquivier, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean ſea below Tortoſa.

The chief bays are thoſe of Biſcay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicant, Altea, Valentia, Roſer, and Majorca in that iſland. The harbour of Port-Mahon, in the iſland of Minorca, belongs to England. The ſtrait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the ſame kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, load-ſtones, jacinths, turquois-ſtones, quickſilver, copper, lead, ſulphur, allum, calamine, chryſtal, marble of ſeveral kinds, with other ſtones; and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethyſts, are found here. The Spaniſh iron, next to that of Damaſcus, furniſhes the beſt arms in the world; and in former times, brought in a vaſt revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection. Even to this day, Spaniſh gun-barrels, and ſwords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongſt the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and ſilver mines; and ſilver was in ſuch plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Auguſtus Cæſar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took poſſeſſion of Spain, their domeſtic and agricultural utenſils were of that metal. Theſe mines have now diſappeared, but whether by their being exhauſted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot ſay; though the latter cauſe ſeems to be the moſt probable.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The Spaniſh horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Andaluſia, are thought to be the handſomeſt of any in Europe, and at the ſame time very fleet and ſerviceable. The king does all he can to monopolize the fineſt breeds for his own ſtables and ſervice. Spain furniſhes likewiſe mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have ſo much ferocity, that their bull-feaſts were the moſt magnificent ſpectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now diſuſed. Wolves are the chief beaſts of prey that peſter Spain, which is well ſtored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries I have already deſcribed. The Spaniſh ſeas afford excellent fiſh of all kinds, eſpecially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.] Spain, formerly the moſt populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people ſent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raiſe food for their families. Another cauſe may be aſſigned, and that is, the vaſt numbers of eccleſiaſtics, of both

both ſexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Other writers have given ſeveral other cauſes, ſuch as their wars with the Moors and final expulſion of that people, but I apprehend that they are in a great meaſure removed by the regulations and checks upon the clergy that have been introduced by his preſent catholic majeſty. Be that as it will, ſome late writers have computed the inhabitants of Spain at 7,500,000; others by that they do not exceed 5,000,000. This calculation, I think, is under-rated, when we reflect on the numerous armies which Spain has raiſed and recruited ſince the beginning of this century.

The perſons of the Spaniards are generally tall, eſpecially the Caſtilians; their hair and complexions ſwarthy, but their countenances are very expreſſive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to wear their upper lips of muſtachoes, and to introduce among them the French dreſs, inſtead of their black cloaks, their ſhort jerkin, ſtrait breeches, and long Toledo ſwords, which dreſs is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dreſs in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find ſome difficulty in aboliſhing it quite, as the ſame ſpirit is far from being extinguiſhed. An old Caſtilian, or Spaniard, who ſees none above him, thinks himſelf the moſt important being in nature; and the ſame pride is commonly communicated to his deſcendents. This is the true reaſon why ſo many of them are ſo fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of ſeeing a ſuperior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the moſt exalted qualities. It inſpires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous ſentiments; it being ſeldom found that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the moſt embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years paſt, we know of no inſtance of their taking advantage (as they might eaſily have done) of confiſcating the Britiſh property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally ſecure in time of war as peace. This is the more ſurprizing, as Philip V. was often needy, and his miniſters were far from being ſcrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great-Britain.

By the beſt and moſt credible accounts of the late war, it appears that the Spaniards in South America gave the moſt humane and noble relief to all Britiſh ſubjects who were in diſtreſs and fell into their hands, not only by ſupplying them with neceſſaries, but money; and treating them in the moſt hoſpitable manner while they remained among them.

Having ſaid thus much, we are carefully to diſtinguiſh between the Spaniſh nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, who are to be put on the ſame footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as thoſe of any other country. The kings of Spain of the houſe of Bourbon, have ſeldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families, as their miniſters. Theſe are generally French or Italians, but moſt commonly the latter, who riſe into power by the moſt infamous arts, and of late times from the moſt abject ſtations. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, ſince their acceſſion to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently ſerved in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greateſt genius among them, embroiled his maſter with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and diſgrace; and Grimaldi, the laſt of their Italian miniſters, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppreſſive and unpopular meaſures.

The

The common people who live on the coaſts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an aſſemblage of Jews, French, Ruſſians, Iriſh adventurers, and Engliſh ſmugglers, who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards. In time of war they follow privateering with great ſucceſs; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Iriſh and Walloon guards in the Spaniſh ſervice.

The beauty of the Spaniſh ladies reigns moſtly in their novels and romances; for tho' it muſt be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their perſons, they are commonly ſmall and ſlender; but they are ſaid to employ vaſt art in ſupplying the defects of nature. If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reaſonably ſuppoſe that thoſe artifices rather diminiſh than encreaſe their beauty, eſpecially when they are turned of 25. Their indiſcriminate uſe of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly diſfigures their complexions, and ſhrivels their ſkin. It is at the ſame time univerſally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have ſaid, it is more than probable that the vaſt pains taken by the government of Spain, may at laſt eradicate thoſe cuſtoms and habits among the Spaniards that ſeem ſo ridiculous to foreigners. They are univerſally known to have refined notions and excellent ſenſe; and this, if improved by ſtudy and travelling, which they now ſtand in great need of, would render them ſuperior to the French themſelves. Their ſlow deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to ſuch a degree, that during the two laſt wars, they were found to be as quick both in reſolving and executing, if not more ſo, than their enemies. Their ſecrecy, conſtancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in ſeveral of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andaluſia, the common people have, for ſome time, aſſiduouſly applied themſelves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, their ſobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfaſt as well as ſup in bed; their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate, tea being very ſeldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, ſalad, and radiſhes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women uſe water or chocolate. Both ſexes uſually ſleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evenings. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that you may ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country dance. Their theatrical exhibitions are generally inſipid and ridiculous bombaſt. The prompter's head appears through a trap door above the level of the ſtage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling paſſion in Spain. Jealouſy, ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace. The nightly muſical ſerenades of miſtreſſes by their lovers are ſtill in uſe. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feaſts, are almoſt peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of ſhewing their courage and activity before their miſtreſſes; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls he has killed in theſe en-

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counters. Great pains are uſed in ſettling the form and weapons of the combat, ſo as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diverſion itſelf is undoubtedly of Mooriſh original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaiſance, and partly through rivalſhip.

RELIGION.] The horrors of the Romiſh religion, the only one tolerated in Spain, are now almoſt extinguiſhed there, by moderating the penalties of the inquiſition, a tribunal diſgraceful to human nature; but though diſuſed, it is not abrogated; only the eccleſiaſtics and their officers can carry no ſentence into execution without the royal authority: it is ſtill in force againſt the Mooriſh and Jewiſh pretended converts. The Spaniards, however, embrace and practiſe the Roman-catholic religion with all its abſurdities; and in this they have been ſo ſteady, that their king is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of Moſt Catholic.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain there are eight archbiſhoprics, and 46 biſhoprics. The archbiſhop of Toledo is ſtiled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Caſtile; has a revenue of 100,000 l. ſterling per annum. The riches of the Spaniſh churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives; but there is a ſameneſs in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treaſure and jewels they contain.

LANGUAGE.] The ground-work of the Spaniſh language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a baſtard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, eſpecially the former. It is at preſent a moſt majeſtic and expreſſive language; and it is remarkable, that foreigners who underſtand it the beſt, prize it the moſt. It makes but a poor figure even in the beſt tranſlators; and Cervantes ſpeaks as awkward Engliſh, as Shakeſpear does French. It may, however, be conſidered as a ſtandard tongue, having retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Paternoſter runs thus; *Padro nueſtro, que eſtas en los cielos, ſanctificade ſea tu nombre; venga tu regno; hagaſe tu voluntad, aſſien la tierra como en el cielo; da nos hoy nueſtro pan cotidiano; y perdona nos nueſtras deudas aſſi como nos otros, perdonamos a nueſtros deudores; y no nos metas en tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le regno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los ſiglos.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in ſome meaſure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which does not ſuffer them to apply to the ſtudy of the polite arts. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Iſidore, biſhop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewiſe produced ſome excellent phyſicians. Calderoni and Lopez de Vega, have by ſome been put in competition with our Shakeſpear in the drama, where it muſt be owned they ſhew great genius. Such was the gloom of the Auſtrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, liſted in a ſtation little ſuperior to that of a common ſoldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto. His ſatire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much ſervice to his country, by curing them of that ridiculous ſpirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous ſatiriſts.

Toſtatus,

Toſtatus, a divine, the moſt voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long diſtinguiſhed only by their bulk. Herrera, and ſome other hiſtorians, particularly De Solis, have ſhewn great abilities in hiſtory, by inveſtigating the antiquities of America, and writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by their countrymen. Spain has likewiſe produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amuſing and inſtructive. If it ſhould happen that the Spaniards could diſengage themſelves from their abſtracted metaphyſical turn of thinking, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature.

Some of the Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts, particularly Murillo, in painting; and not only the cities, but the palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover many ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects; but neither their names nor works are much known in other parts of Europe.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 22 univerſities, ſome make them 24; as, Seville, Granada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valladolid, Salamanca, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Saragoſa, Tortoſa, Oſſuna, Onata, Gandia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.] The former of theſe conſiſt chiefly of Roman and Mooriſh antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of 170 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, Toledo, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneouſly, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules.

The Mooriſh antiquities, eſpecially the palace of Granada, are magnificent and rich: the inſide is overlaid with jaſper and porphyry, and the walls contain many Arabic inſcriptions; the whole is executed in what we improperly call the Gothic taſte, but it is really Saracen, tho' the Goths of Spain adopted it. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh times, remain in Spain, ſome of them in tolerable preſervation, and others exhibiting ſuperb ruins.

Among the natural curioſities, the medicinal ſprings, and ſome noiſy lakes, form a principal part, but we muſt not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is ſaid to emerge.

CHIEF CITIES.] Madrid, tho' unfortified, it being only ſurrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. All its grandeur, which the Spaniards blazon with great pomp, does not prevent its being, according to the beſt accounts, a dirty uncomfortable place to live in, eſpecially for ſtrangers. It is ſurrounded with very lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are frequently covered with ſnow. The houſes in Madrid are of brick; and are laid out chiefly for ſhew, conveniency being little conſidered; thus you will paſs through uſually two or three large apartments of no uſe, in order to come at a ſmall room at the end where the family ſit. The houſes in general look more like priſons, than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, beſide having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range; and ſometimes all the reſt. Separate families generally inhabit the ſame houſe, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking

taking ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially if they are not catholics. Its greateſt excellency is the cheapneſs of its proviſions, but neither tavern, coffee-houſe, nor news-paper, excepting the Madrid gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The boaſted royal palaces round it are deſigned for hunting ſeats, or houſes of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good ſtatues. The chief of thoſe palaces, are the Buen Retiro, Cuſa de Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonſo.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Eſcurial, and the natives ſay, perhaps with juſtice, that the building of it coſt more than that of any palace in Europe. The deſcription of this palace forms a ſizeable quarto volume, and it is ſaid, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it 3,300,060 l. ſterling. The Spaniards ſay, that this building, beſides its palace, contains a church, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, a convent, a college, and a library, beſides large apartments for all kinds of artiſts and mechanics, noble walks, with extenſive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and coſtly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000 l. The mauſoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, becauſe it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full eſtimate of the incredible ſums beſtowed on this palace, and on its furniture, ſtatues, paintings, columns, vaſes, and the like decorations, which are moſt amazingly rich, and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in ſaying, that the fabric itſelf diſcovers a bad taſte, upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, becauſe St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on ſuch a utenſil, and multiplying the ſame figure through its principal ornaments, could have been formed only in the brain of a taſteleſs bigot, ſuch as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1563. It has been enriched and adorned by his ſucceſſors, but its outſide has a gloomy appearance, and the inſide is compoſed of different ſtructures, ſome of which are maſter-pieces of architecture, but forming a diſagreeable whole. It muſt however be confeſt, that the pictures and ſtatues that have found admiſſion here, are excellent in their kind, and ſome of them not to be equalled even in Italy itſelf.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spaniſh commerce. It ſtands on an iſland ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſia, without the ſtraits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the ſea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the Engliſh, in their wars with Spain, becauſe of the vaſt intereſt our merchants have in the treaſures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors.

Seville is, next to Madrid, the largeſt city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. Its manufacturers in wool and ſilk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spaniſh America, is removed to Cadiz.

Barcelona, a large trading city containing 15,000 houſes, is ſituated on the Mediterranean facing Minorca, and is ſaid to be the handſomeſt place in Spain.

Notwithſtanding the pride and oſtentation of the Spaniards, their pe-

nury is eaſily diſcernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites eaſily ſatisfied. The inferior orders even in the greateſt cities are miſerably lodged, and thoſe lodgings wretchedly furniſhed. The poorer ſorts, both men and women, wear neither ſhoes nor ſtockings. A traveller in Spain muſt carry proviſions and bedding with him, and if perchance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he muſt even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard, to perform theſe offices to ſtrangers; but ſome tolerable inns have lately been opened by Iriſh and Frenchmen in the cities, and upon the highways. The pride, indolence, and lazineſs of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more induſtrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contraſt diſtinguiſhes the character of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard ſeldom ſtirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He ſleeps, goes to maſs, takes his evening walk. While the induſtrious Frenchman, becomes a thorough domeſtic; he is butcher, cook, and taylor, all in the ſame family; he powders the hair, cuts the corn, wipes the ſhoes, and after making himſelf uſeful in a thouſand different ſhapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expence of his proud benefactor.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themſelves, make gold and ſilver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium for this commerce. "Hither (ſays Mr. Anderſon, in his Hiſtory of Commerce) other European nations ſend their merchandize, to be ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms for America, ſheltered (or, as our old Engliſh phraſe has it, coloured) under the names of Spaniſh factors. Thoſe foreign nations have here their agents and correſpondents, and the conſuls of thoſe nations make a conſiderable figure. Cadiz has been ſaid to have the fineſt ſtorehouſes and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treaſures of Spaniſh America. The proper Spaniſh merchandize exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandize ſent thither would yield a great revenue, (and conſequently the profits of merchants and their agents would ſink) were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding thoſe duties."

The manufactures of Spain are chiefly of ſilk, wool, copper, and hardware. Great efforts have been made by the government to prevent other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but theſe never can be ſucceſsful, till a ſpirit of induſtry is awakened among the natives, ſo as to enable them to ſupply their American poſſeſſions with their own commodities and merchandize.

Mean while, the good faith and facility with which the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themſelves are, the clear profits ſeldom amounting to leſs than 20 per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that thoſe immenſe riches ſhould belong to the Spaniards rather than to any active European nation: but I ſhall have occaſion to touch this ſubject in the account of America.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the moſt free, is now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of ſucceſſion. It has even been queſtioned,

tioned, whether his catholic majeſty may not bequeath his crown upon his demiſe, to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. It is at leaſt certain, that the houſe of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain, by virtue of the laſt will of Charles II.

The courts or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, eſpecially in Caſtile, had greater power and privileges than that of England, are now aboliſhed, but ſome faint remains of their conſtitution, are ſtill diſcernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the controul of the king.

The privy-council, which is compoſed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, ſits only to prepare matters, and to digeſt papers for the cabinet-council or junta, which conſiſts of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more named by the king, and in them reſides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognizance of military affairs only. The council of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal of the kingdom. The ſeveral courts of the royal audiences, are thoſe of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragoſſa, Valentia and Barcelona. Theſe judge primarily in all cauſes within fifteen miles of their reſpective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior juriſdictions. Beſides theſe there are many ſubordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of buſineſs.

The government of Spaniſh America forms a ſyſtem of itſelf, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magiſtrates, who are in their reſpective diſtricts almoſt abſolute. A council for the Indies is eſtabliſhed in Old Spain, and conſiſts of a governor, four ſecretaries, 22 councellors, beſides officers. Their deciſion is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally choſen from the viceroys and magiſtrates, who have ſerved in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are ſo conſiderable, that they are ſeldom truſted to one perſon for more than three years, but they are thought ſufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain, beſides thoſe in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Maſulquivir, on the coaſt of Barbary in Africa; and the iſlands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Aſia.

The chief iſlands belonging to Spain in Europe, are thoſe of Majorca, and Yvica, of which we have nothing particular to ſay. Minorca is indeed a Spaniſh iſland, but it was taken by the Engliſh in 1708. The Spaniſh inhabitants enjoy their religion, and particular privileges, to which they are entitled by treaties, and they are ſaid to amount to 27,000.

REVENUES.] The revenues ariſing to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000 l. ſterling, though ſome ſay eight; and they form the ſureſt ſupport of his government. His American income, it is true, is immenſe, but it is generally in a manner embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the ſilver mines that are worked, but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in caſe of a war, or any public emergency, to ſequeſter into his own hands great part of the American treaſures belonging to his ſubjects, who never complain, becauſe they are always punctually repaid with intereſt. The finances of his preſent catholic majeſty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himſelf and his people, than thoſe of any of his predeceſſors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues ariſe, they are various, arbitrary, and ſo much ſuited to conveniency, that we cannot fix

them at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houſes, lands, timber, and proviſions; the clergy and military orders are likewiſe taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 40,000; but in caſe of a war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 96,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His preſent catholic majeſty has been at great care and expence to raiſe a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America at preſent exceeds 50 ſhips of the line.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY AND ORDERS. } Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, all which, with ſeveral others, were by name entered into the royal titles, ſo that they amounted in all to about 32. This abſurd cuſtom is ſtill occaſionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of his Catholic majeſty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a ſword without being crowned. Their ſignature never mentions their name, but I THE KING. Their eldeſt ſon is called prince of Aſturias, and their younger children of both ſexes, are by way of diſtinction called infants or infantas, that is children.

The armorial bearing of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a ſhield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermoſt on the right hand, and the loweſt on the left contain a caſtle, or, with three towers, for Caſtile; and in the uppermoſt on the left, and the loweſt on the right, are three lions gules for Leon; with three lillies in the center for Anjou.

The general name for thoſe Spaniſh nobility and gentry, unmixed with the Mooriſh blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, viſcounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may ſtand covered before the king, and are treated with princely diſtinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbiſhops, embaſſadors, knights of the golden fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and ſtate, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king. The knights of the three military orders of St. James, Calatrava, and Alcantara, are eſteemed noblemen; they were inſtituted in the long wars between the Chriſtians and the Moors, as an encouragement to valour; and have large eſtates annexed to their reſpective orders, conſiſting chiefly of towers or territories recovered from the Moors. The order of the golden fleece is generally conferred on princes and ſovereign dukes; but there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

HISTORY.] See Portugal; the two kingdoms being formerly under one head *.

* Charles III. king of Spain, was born in 1716, ſucceeded to the throne in 1759, and has iſſue by his late queen,

1. Maria-Joſepha, born 1744.

2. Maria-Louiſa, born 1745, married 1765, to the archduke Leopold of Auſtria, great duke of Tuſcany, and brother to the preſent emperor of Germany.

3. Philip-Anthony, duke of Calabria, born 1747, declared uncapable of ſucceeding to the throne, on account of an invincible weakneſs of underſtanding.

4. Charles-Anthony, prince of Aſturias, born in 1748, married 1765 to Louiſa-Maria-Thereſa, princeſs of Parma.

5. Ferdinand-Anthony, king of Naples, born in 1751, married 1768, to the archduchess Mary-Cardire-Louiſa, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany.

6. Gabriel-Anthony, born in 1752, grand prior of the kingdom of Spain.

7. Anthony-Paſcal, born 1755.

8. Francis-Xavier, born 1757.

PORTUGAL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300	between	37 and 42 north latitude.
Breadth 100		7 and 10 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the north and eaſt, and on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic ocean, being the moſt weſterly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANTIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Luſitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It moſt probably is derived from ſome noted harbour or port, to which Gauls (for ſo ſtrangers are called in the Celtic) reſorted. By the form of the country it is naturally divided into three parts; the north, middle, and ſouth provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The North Diviſion contains	Entre Minho	Braga
	Douro and	Oporto and Viana
	Tralos Montes	Miranda and Villa Real.
The Middle Diviſion contains	Beira	Coimbra
		Guarda Caſtel Rodrigo
		LISBON 38-42. N. lat. 8-53. W. lon.
	Eſtremadura	St. Ubes and Leira.
The South Diviſion contains	Entre Tajo	Ebora, or Evara
	Guadiana	Portalegre, Elvas, Beia
	Alentejo	Lagos
	Algarva	Faro, Tavira, and Silves.

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The ſoil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, eſpecially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the ſame as in Spain, but not ſo high flavoured. The Portugueze wines, when old and genuine, are eſteemed to be friendly to the human conſtitution, and ſafe to drink. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles and milliſtones, and a fine mine of ſalt-petre, near Liſbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, eſpecially about Liſbon, is reckoned ſoft and beneficial to conſumptive patients; it is not ſo ſearching as that of Spain, being refreſhed from the ſea breeches.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are thoſe which divide Algarve from Alentejo; thoſe of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Liſbon, at the mouth of the Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portugueze rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic ocean. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden ſand. Portugal contains ſeveral roaring lakes and ſprings; ſome of them are abſorbent even of the lighteſt ſubſtances, ſuch as wood, cork, and feathers; ſome, particularly one about 45 miles from Liſbon, are medicinal and ſanative; and ſome hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province of Algarve.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal, are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Eſpithel, at the ſouth entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the ſouth-weſt point of Algarve. The bays are thoſe of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, ſouth of Liſbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarve.

ANIMALS.] The ſea-fiſh, on the coaſt of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are ſure and ſerviceable, both for draught and carriage; and their horſes, though ſlight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the beſt calculation, Portugal contains near two million of inhabitants. By a ſurvey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom, 3,344 pariſhes, and 1,742,230 lay perſons (which is but 522 laity to each pariſh on a medium) beſides about 300,000 eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes.

The modern Portugueze retain nothing of that adventurous enterprizing ſpirit that rendered their forefathers ſo illuſtrious 300 years ago. They have, ever ſince the houſe of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues, though ſome noble exceptions are ſtill remaining among them, and no people are ſo little obliged as the Portugueze are to the reports of hiſtorians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakneſs of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of diſobliging their powerful neighbours, and that inactivity has proved the ſource of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate paſſion for revenge. They are, if poſſible, more ſuperſtitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more ſtate than the Spaniards themſelves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practiſed, and all ranks are accuſed of being unfair in their dealings, eſpecially with ſtrangers. It is hard, however, to ſay what alteration may be made in the character of the Portugueze, by the expulſion of the jeſuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them, but above all, by that ſpirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, is now ſo much encouraged by their court and miniſtry.

The Portugueze are neither ſo tall, nor ſo well made as the Spaniards, whoſe habits and cuſtoms they imitate, only the Portugueze quality affect to be more gayly and richly dreſſed. The Portugueze ladies are thin and ſmall of ſtature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expreſſive, and their features generally regular. They are eſteemed to be generous, moderate, and witty. They dreſs like the Spaniſh ladies, with much awkwardneſs and affected gravity, but in general more magnificent, and they are taught by their huſbands to exact from their ſervants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal perſonages. The furniture of the houſes, eſpecially of their grandees, is rich and ſuperb to exceſs; and they maintain an incredible number of domeſtics, as they never diſcharge any who ſurvive, after ſerving their anceſtors.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal is popery in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. The Portugueze have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unleſs when a quarrel ſubſiſted between the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of his holineſs in Portugal has been of late ſo much curtailed, that it is difficult to deſcribe the religious ſtate

ſtate of that country; all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly encreaſed at the expence of the religious inſtitutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquiſition is now taken out of the hands of eccleſiaſtics, and converted to a ſtate trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are thoſe of Braga, Evora, and Liſbon. The firſt of theſe has ten ſuffragan biſhops; the ſecond two; and the laſt ten, including thoſe of the Portugueze ſettlements abroad. The patriarch of Liſbon is generally a cardinal, and a perſon of the higheſt birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portugueze language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Pater-noſter runs thus: *Padre noſſo que eſtas nos Ceos, ſanctificado ſeio o tu nome; venha a nos ten reyno, ſeia feita a tua votade, aſſi nos ceos, commo na terra. O paonoſſa de cadatia, dano lo oie n'eſtodia. E perdoa nos ſeuhor, as noſſas dividas, aſſi como nos perdoamos a os noſſos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir om tentatio, mas libra nos do mal.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Theſe are ſo few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by thoſe of the Portugueze themſelves, who have the ſmalleſt tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by the Portugueze, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable ſtate of ignorance; but what their ſucceſs may be, I ſhall not pretend to ſay. It is univerſally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The anceſtors of the preſent Portugueze, were certainly poſſeſſed of more true knowledge, with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world beſides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for ſome time after. Camoens, who himſelf was a great adventurer and voyager, was poſſeſſed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Liſbon, Evora, and Coimbra; but that of Liſbon ſcarcely deſerves the name of an univerſity.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned form the chief of theſe. The remains of ſome caſtles in the Moriſh taſte are ſtill ſtanding. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almoſt entire and deſervedly admired. The walls of Santareen are ſaid to be of Roman work likewiſe. The church and monaſtery near Liſbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpreſſibly magnificent, and ſeveral monaſteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. To theſe curioſities we may add, that his preſent moſt faithful majeſty is poſſeſſed of the largeſt diamond, which was found in Braſil, that ever was perhaps ſeen in the world.

CHIEF CITIES.] Liſbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which alſo ſet the remainder on fire, upon All-Saints-day, 1755. It ſtill contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its ſituation (riſing from the Tagus in the form of a creſcent) renders its appearance at once delightful and ſuperb, and it is deſervedly accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. The harbour is ſpacious and ſecure, and the city itſelf is guarded from any ſudden attack towards the ſea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence againſt ſhips of war. The city of Oporto, conſiſting of about 50,000 inhabitants, carries on a great trade with England, eſpecially for the wines ſo well known by the name of *Port*.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe, within theſe ſeven or

eight years, have taken a ſurprizing turn in Portugal. The enterprizing miniſter there, has projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again complained of, as unjuſt and oppreſſive to the privileges which the Britiſh merchants formerly enjoyed by the moſt ſolemn treaties.

The Portugueze exchange their wines, ſalt, and fruits, and moſt of their own materials for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and ſome coarſe ſilk, and woollen, with a variety of ſtraw work, and are excellent in preſerving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though ſeemingly extenſive, proves of little ſolid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engroſs all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, ſugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Braſil; her ivory, ebony, ſpices, and drugs of Africa and Eaſt-India; in exchange for the almoſt numberleſs manufactures, and the vaſt quantity of corn and ſalt-fiſh, ſupplied by thoſe European nations, and by the Engliſh North American colonies.

The Portugueze foreign ſettlements are, however, not only of immenſe value, but vaſtly improvable. They bring gold from their plantations on the eaſt and weſt coaſts of Africa, and likewiſe ſlaves for manufacturing their ſugars and tobacco in Braſil, and their ſouth American ſettlements.

What the value of theſe may be, is unknown perhaps to the Portugueſe themſelves, but they certainly abound in all the precious ſtones, and rich mines of gold and ſilver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spaniſh dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold, ſent from Braſil, amounts annually to 300,000 l. ſterling, notwithſtanding the vaſt contraband trade. The little ſhipping the Portugueze have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the ſlave trade, and a correſpondence with Goa, their chief ſettlement in the Eaſt-Indies, and their other poſſeſſions there.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is abſolute, but the nation ſtill preſerves an appearance of its ancient free conſtitution, in the meeting of the cortes or ſtates, conſiſting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility, and commons. They pretend to a right of being conſulted upon the impoſition of new taxes, but the only real power they have is that their aſſent is neceſſary in every new regulation, with regard to the ſucceſſion. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future diſputes on that account. The ſucceſſion in Portugal may devolve to the female line.

All great preferments, both ſpiritual and temporal, are diſpoſed of in the council of ſtate, which is compoſed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the ſecretary of ſtate. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treaſury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals, but the Caſa da Supplicaçao is a tribunal, from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half ſterling, annually. The cuſtoms and duties on goods exported, and imported, are exceſſive, and farmed out; but if the Portugueze miniſtry ſhould ſucceed in all their ambitious projects, and in eſtabliſhing excluſive companies, to the prejudice of the Britiſh trade, the

the inhabitants will be able to bear theſe taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandize pays 23 per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring ſeas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are ſold is 10 per cent. The king draws a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is grand maſter. The pope, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money ariſing from indulgences and licences to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now encreaſed by the ſuppreſſion of religious orders and inſtitutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portugueze government depends chiefly for protection on England, and therefore they have for many years ſhamefully neglected both their army and fleet. Their troops in time of peace ought to amount to 14,000, but they are without diſcipline or courage, and their regiments are thin. The preſent king, however, ſince the late invaſion of his dominions by the French and Spaniards, has employed Engliſh and foreign officers, for diſciplining his troops, and repairing his fortifications. The marine of Portugal in 1754, conſiſted only of 12 ſhips of war, which were employed as convoys and carriers, but were quite unprovided for action. The preſent king is preparing to put his fleet upon a more reſpectable footing.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, king of Portugal, and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conqueſt, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and Braſil. The laſt king was complimented by the pope, with the title of his moſt Faithful majeſty. That of his eldeſt ſon is prince of Braſil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five eſcutcheons, azure, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſants as the firſt, placed, ſalter-wiſe, and pointed ſable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered, gules, charged with ſeven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The creſt is a crown, or, under the two flanches, and the baſe of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the firſt flower-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Avis, and the ſecond petee, gules, for the order of Chriſt; the motto is changeable, each king aſſuming a new one; but it is frequently theſe words, *Pro Rege et Grege*, viz. for the King and the People.

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The title and diſtinctions of their nobility are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are four; 1. That of Chriſt; 2. The order of James; 3. The order of Avis. All thoſe orders have large commanderies, and revenues annexed to them. The order of Malta has likewiſe 23 commanderies in Portugal.

HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.] Spain was probably firſt peopled from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous, or from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Gibraltar. The Phenicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their poſſeſſion until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths.

Theſe, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who about the end of the 7th century, had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and not content with the immenſe regions that

formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they croſs the Mediterranean, ravage Spain, and eſtabliſh themſelves in the ſoutherly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the firſt Old Spaniſh prince who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels, (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors) and he took the title of king of Aſturia about the year 720.

His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars. In the mean while, every adventurer was entitled to the conqueſts he made upon the Moors, till Spain at laſt was divided into 12 or 14 kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon, Alphonſo, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1475, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella, the heireſs, and afterwards queen, of Caſtile, who took Granada, and expelled the Moors and Jews, to the number of 170,000 families, out of Spain. I ſhall, in their proper places, mention the vaſt acquiſitions made at this time to Spain by the diſcovery of America, and the firſt expeditions of the Portugueſe to the Eaſt-Indies, by the diſcovery of the Cape of Good-Hope; but the ſucceſſes of both nations were attended with diſagreeable conſequences.

The expulſion of the Moors and Jews, in a manner depopulated Spain of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the popiſh inquiſition with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a ſafeguard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and afterwards emperor of Germany, ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his proteſtant ſubjects in Germany, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. At laſt, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a reſolution that filled all Europe with aſtoniſhment, the withdrawing himſelf entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude.

Agreeable to this reſolution, he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the preſence of his principal nobility, to his ſon Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria into two branches; Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the new world, alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch, whilſt the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia fell to the lot of the younger, which they ſtill poſſeſs.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cauſe of popery. His marriage with

queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like himſelf, his unſucceſsful addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, his reſentment and unſucceſsful wars with that princeſs, his tyranny in the Low-Countries, the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned.

In Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill-concerted expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and ſoon after, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal pretended to a prior right. By this acquiſition Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill holds.

The deſcendents of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo totally ruined the antient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne; and ever ſince, Portugal has been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Auſtrian line, failing in the perſon of Charles II. who left no iſſue, Philip, duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the Dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, by virtue of his predeceſſor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the concluſion of the peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. thro' a maſterly train of politics, (for in his wars to ſupport his grandſon, as we have already obſerved, he was reduced to the loweſt ebb) accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Eaſt-Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria to that of his own family of Bourbon; an event which proved fatal to the commerce of Great-Britain, eſpecially in the American ſeas, where a glaring partiality has been ſhewn to the French nation ever ſince, and renders our being poſſeſſed of a port in the South-Seas of equal importance to that of Gibraltar, at the entrance of the Mediterranean, which ſerves as a curb on the united ſtrength of France and Spain in Europe.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was diſturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Ferdinand VI. who, in 1759, died without iſſue, through melancholy for the loſs of his wife. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother, Charles III. the preſent king of Spain, ſon to Philip V. by his wife, the princeſs of Parma.

The Portugueſe could not have ſupported themſelves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the reſtoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, in 1668, to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom. Alphonſo, ſon to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to diſagree at once with his wife, and his brother Peter, and they uniting their intereſts, not only forced Alphonſo to reſign his crown,

crown, but obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to his preſent Portugueſe majeſty. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, they had almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the great battle of Almanza in 1707. John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, his preſent majeſty. In 1760, the king was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life in a ſolitary place near his country palace of Belim. The executions of nobility and others which followed, are ſhocking to humanity, eſpecially as we know of no clear proof againſt the parties. From this conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the jeſuits (who are ſuppoſed to have been at the bottom of the treaſon) from all parts of his moſt faithful majeſty's dominions. The preſent king having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown falling into a foreign family, and the next year, 1761, ſhe was brought to bed of a ſon, called the prince of Beira.

In 1762, when war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force his faithful majeſty into their alliance, and to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of theſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in conſideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earneſt, they might have been maſters of Liſbon long before the arrival of the Engliſh troops to the aſſiſtance of the Portugueſe.

Be that as it will, a few Engliſh battalions put an effectual ſtop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progreſs of the invaſion. Portugal was ſaved and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau in 1763. Notwithſtanding this eminent ſervice performed by the Engliſh to the Portugueſe, who had been often ſaved before in the like manner, the latter, ever ſince that period, cannot be ſaid to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The moſt captious diſtinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portugueſe miniſters for cramping the Engliſh trade, and depriving them of their unqueſtionable privileges; not to mention that his moſt faithful majeſty is ſaid now to have become a party in the famous family compact of the houſe of Bourbon.

As to Spain, her king is ſo warmly attached to that compact, that he even hazarded his American dominions to ſupport it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, and thereby rendered herſelf entirely miſtreſs of the navigation of the Spaniſh plate fleets. Many circumſtances concurred to make a peace neceſſary to England, and upon its concluſion the Havannah was reſtored to Spain.

His preſent catholic majeſty does all he can to oblige his ſubjects to deſiſt from their antient dreſs and manners, and carried his endeavours to




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FRANCE
GERMANY
Geneva
Lyons
Briançon
Suza
Turin
Asti
Alessandria
Novara
Milan
Parma
Modena
Lucca
Orange
Avignon
Antibes
Monaco
Ventimiglia
Oneglia
Savona
Genoa
GULF of GENOA
Toulon
Rhone R.
Hieres I.
Corsica
Bastia
Calvi
Porto Vecchio
Aleria
Ajaccio
Bonifacio
Str. of Bonifacio
Asinara I.
Sassari
Alghero
Bosa
Oristagni
Tavolara I.
Siniscola
Cedro R.
Sardinia
Cagliari
St. Pietro I.
Antioco I.
C. Tavolara
British Statute Miles.
10 20 40 60 80
MEDITERRANEAN


Longit: East from London
ITALY
by
Tho.r Kitchin.
TURKEY
EUROPE
GULF OF VENICE
SEA
LIPARI ISLES
GULF of TARENTO
Laubach
Gorits
Triest
Fiume
Parenzo
Pola
Osero
Pago
Rimini
Pesaro
Fano
Sinigaglia
Jesi
Ancona
Loretto
Fermo
Fuligno
Tronto R.
Aquila
Lanciano
Sebenico
Lesina
Cattaro
Molise
Vasto
Bojano
Manfredonia
Benevento
Barri
Trani
Brundisi
Tarento
Otranto
Gallipoli
Capua
Naples
Gaeta
Capua
Salerno
Capri
Amalfi
Policastro
C. de Palermudo
Cirella
Rossano
Cosenza
C. Trionto
C. dell Alice
Cotrone
C. Rizzuto
Strombulo
Lipari
Nicotera
C. de Stilo
Rhegio
Girace
C. di Spartivento
Messina
Mt Aetna
Catania
Augusta
Syracuse
Noto
C. Passaro
Milazzo
Cefalu
Palermo
Trapani
Marsala
Sciacca
Girgenti
Terra Nova
Camarana
1 Hour East from London



so far, that it occasioned so dangerous an insurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his minister *.

ITALY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600 / Breadth 400	between	38 and 47 north latitude. / 6 and 19 east longitude

BOUNDARIES.] NATURE has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the east it is bounded by the gulph of Venice, or Adriatic sea; on the south and west by the Mediterranean sea; and on the north, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corsica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other islands, are divided and exhibited in the following table.

Italy.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
To the king of Sardinia	Piedmont	6619	140	98	Turin
	Savoy	3572	87	60	Chambery
	Montserrat	446	40	22	Casal
	Alessandrine	204	27	20	Alexandria
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia
	Sardinia I.	6600	135	57	Cagliara
To the king of Naples	Naples	22,000	275	200	Naples
	Sicily I.	9400	180	92	Palermo
To the emperor	Milan	5431	155	70	Milan
	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola
Papists.	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	ROME N. Lat. 41-54. E. Lon. 12-45.
To their respective princes	Tuscany	6640	115	94	Florence
	Massa	82	16	11	Massa
	Parma	1225	48	37	Parma
	Modena	1560	65	39	Modena
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco
Republics	Lucca	286	28	15	Lucca
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino
	Genoa	2400	160	25	Genoa
To France	Corsica I.	2520	90	38	Bastia
To the republic of Venice	Venice	8434	175	95	Venice
	Istria P.	1245	62	32	Capo d'Istria
	Dalmatia P.	1400	135	20	Zara
	Isles of Dalmatia	1364			
Islands in the Venetian dominions	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonia
	Corfu, or Corcyra	194	31	10	Corfu
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura
	Little Cephalonia	14	7	3	
	Ithaca olim				
	Total—	75,056			

* Joseph, king of Portugal, was born in 1714; his queen, Mary-Anne-Victoria, infanta of Spain, in 1716, and have issue, besides three more daughters,

Maria-Frances-Isabella, princess of Brasil, born in 1734, married, 1760, to her uncle, Don Pedro, by whom she has issue,

1. Joseph-Frances Xavier, prince of Beira, born in 1761.
2. John-Maria-Josepha.

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy ſoil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each diſtrict has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the moſt delicious fruits, and oil, are the moſt general productions. As much corn grows here as ſerves the inhabitants; and was the ground duly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeſes, particularly thoſe called Parmeſans, and their native ſilk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air; and ſome parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental cauſes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the antient Romans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almoſt peſtilential through the decreaſe of inhabitants, which has occaſioned a ſtagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being, in many places, covered with ſnow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almoſt divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the ſouth being warm, thoſe on the north mild and temperate. The ſea-breezes refreſh the kingdom of Naples ſo much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithſtanding its ſouthern ſituation. In general, the air of Italy may be ſaid to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and the Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Veſuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULPHS OR BAYS, AND STRAITS.] Without a knowledge of theſe, neither the antient Roman authors, nor the hiſtory nor geography of Italy can be underſtood. The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the ſouthern boundary between Italy and the antient Ciſalpine Gaul. The chief ſeas are the gulphs of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea, the gulphs of Taranto and Genoa. The ſtraits of Meſſina, between Naples and Sicily, and Bonifacio, between Corſica and Sardinia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral ſprings, ſome hot, ſome warm, and many of ſulphureous, chalybeat, and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable ſtones. Iron and copper mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating theſe metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is ſaid to contain mines of gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, and allum, tho' they are now neglected; and curious chryſtals and corals are found on the coaſt of Corſica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] Beſides the rich vegetable productions mentioned under the article of ſoil, Italy produces citrons, and ſuch quantities of cheſnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or ſea, and thoſe of France and Germany already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great measure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's ſubjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itſelf, by the beſt accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of thoſe who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have ariſen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am apt to believe that the preſent inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and ſome other of the moſt beautiful parts of Italy, are at preſent in a manner deſolate; but we are to conſider that the modern Italians are in a great meaſure free from the unremitting wars, not to mention the tranſmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and ſtates of Italy, now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; ſo that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we aſſign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but ſome calculations greatly exceed that number. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have ſuch meaning in their looks, that they have greatly aſſiſted the ideas of their painters. Their women are well ſhaped, and very amorous. The marriage ties, eſpecially of the better ſort, are of very little value in Italy. Every wife has her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom ſhe keeps company, and ſometimes cohabits with very little ceremony, and no offence on either ſide. This practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice. With regard to the modes of life, the beſt quality of a modern Italian is ſobriety, and contentment under the public government. With great taciturnity they diſcover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more ſuperſtitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native cuſtoms, and ſeem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondneſs for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and ſatisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peaſant can be luxurious at a very ſmall expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain five deſcendents of the antient Romans, yet the preſent inhabitants ſpeak of themſelves as ſucceſſors to the conquerors of the world, and look upon the reſt of mankind with contempt.

The dreſs of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the ſolemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dreſt in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts; though they are as yet but deſpicable proficients in the ſciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal muſic at a very dear rate, by emaſculating their males when young, to which their mercenary parents agree without remorſe.

The Italians, the Venetians eſpecially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many cuſtoms that are conſidered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their ſons ſhould throw themſelves away by unſuitable marriage, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours, hire

hire miſtreſſes for them for a month or a year, or ſome determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenſed trade. The Italian courtezans or bona robas, as they are called, make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming, horſe-races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief diverſions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, deſcribing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians and their manner of living. "Give what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, ſays he, you will never imagine half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian naſtineſs, offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other inns. No other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a matraſs of ſtraw, and next to that a dirty ſheet, ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp; for a covering, you have another ſheet as coarſe as the firſt, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlit. The bedſtead conſiſts of four wooden forms or benches: an Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lye in this manner, unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There are, by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns, the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been waſhed ſince it was firſt laid. One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid ſervant, if ſuffered. They never ſcour their pewter; their knives are of the ſame colour. In theſe inns they make you pay largely, and ſend up ten times as much as you can eat. The ſoup, like waſh, with pieces of liver ſwimming in it; a plate full of brains, fried in the ſhape of fritters; a diſh of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any of the leaſt kind of ſauce or herbage; another fowl, juſt killed, ſtewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roaſted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are ſo ſtringy, that you may divide the breaſt into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal, and generally ſpeaking, it is the only eatable morſel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceeding bad, and the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of our ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite numbers of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice which infeſt us by day and night."

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman-catholic. The inquiſition here is little more than a ſound; and perſons of all religions live unmoleſted in Italy, provided no groſs inſult is offered to their worſhip. In the Introduction, we have given an account of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of popery in Italy, from whence it ſpread over all Europe; likewiſe of the cauſes and ſymptoms of its decline. The eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in deſcribing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holineſs, are ſeventy, but that number is ſeldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promo-

ting

g foreign prelates to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf ac-
rding to the nomination of the princes who profeſs that religion.
is chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near
lation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amaſſing what
can. When met in a conſiſtory, the cardinals pretend to controul
pope, in matters both ſpiritual and temporal, and have been ſome-
nes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is ſeldom of long du-
ion, being generally old men at the time of their election. The
nclave is a ſcene where the cardinals principally endeavour to diſplay
ir parts, and where many tranſactions paſs which hardly ſhew their
ſpiration from the Holy Ghoſt. During the election of a pope in
21, the animoſities ran ſo high, that they came to blows with both
ir hands and feet, and threw the ink-ſtandiſhes at each other. We
ll here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before
elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein
church of Rome differs from the proteſtant churches. After declaring
belief in one God, and other heads wherein Chriſtians in general
agreed, he proceeds as follows.

"I moſt firmly admit and embrace the apoſtolical and eccleſiaſtical
ditions, and all other conſtitutions of the ſame church.

"I do admit the holy ſcriptures in the ſame ſenſe that the holy mo-
r church doth, whoſe buſineſs it is to judge of the true ſenſe and
erpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the un-
imous conſent of the fathers.

"I do profeſs and believe that there are ſeven ſacraments of the law,
ly and properly ſo called, inſtituted by Jeſus Chriſt our Lord, and ne-
ſary to the ſalvation of mankind, though not all of them to every
e; namely, baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penance, extreme
ction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that
theſe, baptiſm, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated with-
t ſacrilege. I do alſo receive and admit the received and approved
es of the catholic church in her ſolemn adminiſtration of the above-
id ſacraments.

"I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been de-
ed and declared by the holy council of Trent * concerning original
and juſtification.

"I do alſo profeſs that in the maſs there is offered unto God a true,
oper, and propitiatory ſacrifice for the quick and the dead, and that in
e moſt holy ſacrament of the euchariſt there is truly, really, and ſub-
ntially, the body and blood, together with the ſoul and divinity of
r Lord Jeſus Chriſt; and that there is a converſion made of the whole
bſtance of the bread into the body, and of the whole ſubſtance of the
ne into the blood; which converſion the catholic church calls Tranſub-
ntiation.

"I confeſs that under one kind only, whole and entire, Chriſt and
true ſacrament is taken and received.

"I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the ſouls kept
ſoners there do receive help by the ſuffrages of the faithful.

* A convocation of Roman-catholic divines, who aſſembled at Trent, by virtue of a
l from the pope, anno 1546, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to ſup-
ſs what they were pleaſed to term the Riſing Hereſies in the church.

"I do likewiſe believe that the ſaints reigning together with Chri
are to be worſhipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer praye
unto God for us, and that their relicts are to be had in veneration.

"I do moſt firmly aſſert, that the images of Chriſt, of the bleſſ
Virgin the mother of God, and of other ſaints, ought to be had an
retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unt
them *.

"I do likewiſe affirm, that the power of indulgence was left by Chri
to the church, and that the uſe of them is very beneficial to chriſtia
people †.

"I d

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* An Engliſh Traveller ſpeaking of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Floren
in Italy, deſcribes it as follows. I had occaſion, ſays he, to ſee a proceſſion, where all th
nobleſs of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary of a charitable in
ſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every ye
About two hundred of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two and two together. Th
were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in ſack-cloth, wi
lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies: b
the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, ſtanding with
a gilt frame, dreſſed in a gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of falſe jewe
her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity
the faſhion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the cruc
but when the Lady Mother appeared on the ſhoulders of three or four luſty friars, th
whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

† A long liſt of indulgences, or fees of the pope's chancery, may be ſeen in a boo
printed 150 years ago, by authority of the then pope. It has been tranſlated into Eng
liſh, under the title of *Rome a great Cuſtom-houſe for Sin*; from which we ſhall give
few extracts.

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that ſtole holy or conſecrated things out of a holy place, 10 s. 6 d.
For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9 s.
For a layman for *murdering* a layman, 7 s. 6 d.
For him that *killeth* his father, mother, wife, or ſiſter, 10 s. 6 d.
For laying violent hands on a *clergyman*, ſo it be without effuſion of blood, 10 s. 6 d.
For a prieſt that keeps a concubine; as alſo his diſpenſation for being irregular, 10 s. 6
For him that lyeth with his *own mother, ſiſter*, or *godmother*, 7 s. 6 d.
For him that *burns* his neighbour's houſe, 12 s.
For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1 l. 7 s.
For him that forgeth letters apoſtolical, 1 l. 7 s.
For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2 l. 6 s.
For a king for going to the holy ſepulchre without licence, 7 l. 10 s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a baſtard to enter all holy orders, 18 s.
For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have chriſtian burial
1 l. 7 s. 6 d.

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to viſit the apoſtolic churches, 18
To eat fleſh and white meats in Lent, and other faſting days, 10 s. 6 d.
That a king or queen ſhall enjoy ſuch indulgences, as if they went to Rome, 15 l.
For a queen to adopt a child, 300 l.
To marry in times prohibited, 2 l. 5 s.
To eat fleſh in times prohibited, 1 l. 4 s.
Not to be tied to faſting days, 1 l. 4 s.
For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken ſanctuary therein
4 l. 10 s.

FACULTIES.

To abſolve all delinquents, 3 l.
To diſpenſe with irregularities, 3 l.

"I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apoſtolical Roman church, to be the mother and miſtreſs of all churches; and I do promiſe and vow true obedience to the biſhop of Rome, the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, the prince of the Apoſtles, and vicar of Jeſus Chriſt.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profeſs all other things, which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the ſacred canons and œcumenical councils, and eſpecially by the holy ſynod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all hereſies condemned, rejected and anathematized by the church, I do likewiſe condemn, reject, and anathematize."

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty-eight archbiſhoprics in Italy, but the ſuffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or ſuppreſſing them as he pleaſes.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmoothneſs, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſitions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is eaſily maſtered by a good claſſical ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary ſocieties there, may at laſt fix the Italian into a ſtandard language. At preſent, the Tuſcan ſtile and writing is moſt in requeſt.

The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Padre noſtro, che ſei nel cielo, ſia ſanctificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volunta ſia fatta, ſic come in cielo coſi anche in terra; dacci oggi il noſtro pane cotidiano; e rimettici noſtri debiti, ſic come noi ancora rimettiamo a' noſtri debitori; e non inducici in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciochè tuo è il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in ſempiterno.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS.] In the introduction, we have particularized ſome of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, ſince the revival of learning, ſome Italians have ſhone in controverſial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own perſuaſion. The mathematics and natural philoſophy owe much to Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and ſeveral other Italians. Strada is an excellent hiſtorian; and the hiſtory of the council of Trent, by Fra. Paoli, is a ſtandard work. Guicciardin, Benivolio, and Davila, have been much commended as hiſtorians by their ſeveral admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an hiſtorian, and as a political writer. His comedies are excellent; and the liberality of his ſentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. The greateſt modern genius of Italy in poetry is Taſſo; though ſome have preſumed to put Arioſto in competition with him. Sannazarius, Fracaſtorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the elegance, correctneſs, and ſpirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compoſitions not yielding to the Claſſics themſelves. Socinus, who has puzzled ſo many orthodox divines, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, ſculptors, architects, and muſicians, are unrivalled not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the ſack of Conſtantinople by the Turks, revived taſte likewiſe, and gave mankind a reliſh for truth and beauty in deſign and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, aſſiſted by the ancients, ſtruck out a new creation with his pencil, and ſtill ſtands at the head of the painting art. Michael Angelo Buonaroti, united in his own perſon,

painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their ſeveral manners. The ſame may be ſaid of Correlli, and other Italians, in muſic. At preſent, Italy cannot juſtly boaſt of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Thoſe of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Piſa, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Italy is the native country of all that is ſtupendous, great or beautiful, either in antient or modern times. A library might be filled by deſcriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor does the bounds of this work admit of mentioning even their general heads. All I can do is to give the reader the names of thoſe objects that are moſt diſtinguiſhed either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the firſt rank, as a ſpecies of the moſt ſtriking magnificence; that which was erected by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the Coloſeo, now ſtands at Rome. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the conſul Flaminius, is thought to be the moſt entire of any in Italy. The ruins of other theatres and amphitheatres are viſible in other places. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, particularly that of the Pantheon, anſwer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with inſtructive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the devaſtations of the northern barbarians, when he ſees the roſtrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the firſt naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians. The ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original braſs plate containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other identical antiquities, ſome of them tranſmitted unhurt to the preſent times; not to mention medals and the infinite variety of ſeals and engraved ſtones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furniſhed with buſts and ſtatues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the firſt 200 miles, the ſecond 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire; nor is the reader to expect any deſcription of the magnificent ruins of villas, reſervoirs, bridges, and the like, that preſent themſelves all over the country of Italy.

The ſubterraneous conſtructions of Italy are as ſtupendous as thoſe above ground, witneſs the cloacæ and catacombs, or repoſitories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 20 years ſince a painter's apprentice diſcovered the antient city of Pæſtum or Poſidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, ſtill ſtanding; for ſo indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new diſcovery to the learned. An inexhauſtible mine of curioſities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, and ſunk in an earthquake 1700 years ago.

Wi

With regard to modern curioſities, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains 300 churches filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps exiſted; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultleſs. The houſe and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithſtanding the ridiculous romance that compoſes its hiſtory.

The natural curioſities of Italy, though remarkable, are not ſo numerous as its artificial. Mount Veſuvius, near Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. Mount Ætna is 60 miles in circumference, and at the top there is a baſon of ſulphur ſix miles round, from whence ſometimes iſſues rivers of melted minerals that run down into the ſea. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people periſhed. Between the lakes Agnano and Puzzeli there is a valley called Solfatara, becauſe vaſt quantities of ſulphur are continually forced out of the cliffs by ſubterranean fires. The grotto del Canæ is remarkable for its poiſonous ſteams, and is ſo called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. The poiſon of the Tarantula, an inſect or ſpider, is well known to be removed only by muſic and dancing; and ſcorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, are common in Apulia.

ARMS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy, are as follow. The pope, as ſovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long headcape, or, ſurmounted with a croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in Saltier. The arms of Tuſcany, or, five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-luces, or. Thoſe of Venice, azure, a lion winged, ſejant, or, holding under one of his paws, a book covered, argent. Laſtly, thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for the iſland of Corſica; and for ſupporters, two griffins, or.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. } Thus far I have been enabled to treat of Italy in general, but I am here conſtrained to deviate from my uſual method. The Italian ſtates are not like the republics of Holland, or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable; for every Italian ſtate has diſtinct forms of government, trade, and intereſts. I ſhall be therefore obliged to take a ſeparate view of each, to aſſiſt the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or as he is uſually ſtiled, king of SARDINIA, taking his royal title from that iſland, is now a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, againſt the French. He has an order of knighthood, which is called the Annunciade, inſtituted by the firſt duke of Savoy, to commemorate his brave defence of Rhodes againſt the infidels.

His Sardinian majeſty's capital, Turin, is ſtrongly fortified, and one of the fineſt cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to ſeek their bread all over the world. They are eſteemed a ſimple but very honeſt people. The

king is ſo abſolute, that his revenues conſiſt of what he pleaſes to raiſe upon his ſubjects. His ordinary income, beſides his own family provinces, cannot be leſs than 500,000 l. ſterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when aſſiſted by foreign ſubſidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandizement of his preſent Sardinian majeſty is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his ſituation and neighbourhood, he is a natural ally, for the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe.

The MILANESE, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, is a moſt formidable ſtate, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country is almoſt incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very ſtrong, and furniſhed with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taſte, which contains a very rich treaſury, conſiſting chiefly of eccleſiaſtical furniture, compoſed of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The revenue of the duchy is about 300,000 l. annually, which is ſuppoſed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political aſſemblies, where they hold forth almoſt on all ſubjects. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports, ſo that its revenue, unleſs the court of Vienna ſhould purſue ſome other ſyſtem of improvement, cannot be much bettered.

The republic of GENOA is vaſtly degenerated from its antient power and opulence, though the ſpirit of trade ſtill continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a moſt ſuperb city. The inhabitants of diſtinction dreſs in black, in a plain, if not in an uncouth manner, perhaps to ſave expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but ſome writers greatly diminiſh that number) among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to ſix gallies, and about 600 ſoldiers. The chief ſafety of this republic conſiſts in the jealouſy of other European powers, becauſe to any one of them it would be a moſt valuable acquiſition. The common people are wretched beyond expreſſion, as is the ſoil of its territory. Near the ſea ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is purely ariſtocratical, being entirely veſted in the nobility.

VENICE is one of the moſt celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its conſtitution and former power. It is compoſed of ſeveral fine provinces on the continent of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is ſeated on 72 iſlands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips to navigate, which forms its principal ſtrength. Venice preſerves the veſtiges of its antient magnificence, but is in every reſpect degenerated except in the paſſion which its inhabitants ſtill retain for muſic and mummery during their carnivals. They ſeem to have loſt their antient taſte for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothiciſm. They have, however, lately had ſome ſpirited differences with the court of Rome, and ſeem to be diſpoſed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the conſtitution

ſtitution of the republic, to which it is ſaid they owe their independency, we can write little with any preciſion, becauſe it is kept a myſtery to all but the members, and even of them (ſuch are its intricacies and checks) few or none know it perfectly. All we know for certain is, that like Genoa, the government is ariſtocratic, and that the nobility are divided into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2,500, each of whom, when 25 years of age, has a right to be a member of the council. Theſe elect a doge or chief magiſtrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and ſilver balls. The doge is inveſted with great ſtate, and with emblems of ſupreme authority, but has very little power, and is ſhut up in the city as a priſoner. The government and laws are managed by five different councils of the nobles.

As every Venetian of a noble family is himſelf noble, great numbers of them go about the ſtreets begging, and generally preſent a ſilver or tin box, to ſtrangers, to receive their alms. All the orders are dreſt in black gowns, large wigs and caps, which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his bucentaur or ſtate-barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobility, is the moſt ſuperb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord mayor's ſhew. The inhabitants of Venice are ſaid to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treaſury, and the arſenal, are beyond expreſſion. Over the ſeveral canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greateſt part of which are ſtone. The Venetians ſtill have ſome manufactures in ſcarlet cloth, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and above all, fine looking-glaſſes, all which bring in a conſiderable revenue to the owners; that of the ſtate annually is ſaid to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the ſtate and the pay of the army, which in time of peace conſiſts of 16,000 regular troops, (always commanded by a foreign general) and 10,000 militia. They keep up a ſmall fleet for curbing the inſolencies of the piratical ſtates of Barbary, and they have among them ſeveral orders of knighthood, the chief of which are thoſe of the Golden Star, ſo called from its badge, which is conferred only on the firſt quality, and the military order of St. Marc, the badge of which is a medal of that apoſtle.

In eccleſiaſtical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are choſen by the ſenate; and all religions, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting proteſtants, are here tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion.

The Venetians live in the perpetual extremes of the moſt infamous debaucheries, or the moſt ridiculous devotion. Prieſts and nuns abandon themſelves to the former, during the carnival, which is chiefly held in St. Marc's place, where ſometimes 15,000 people aſſemble.

The principal city of TUSCANY is Florence, which is now poſſeſſed by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, after being long held by the illuſtrious houſe of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and maſterly in architecture, literature and the arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture. It is

thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces, have been often deſcribed, but all deſcription falls ſhort of their contents, ſo that in every reſpect it is reckoned, after Rome, the ſecond city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the ſtandard of taſte in female beauty and proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal. The inſcription on its baſe mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded by other maſter-pieces of ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which ſtands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, ſtatuary, and architecture. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, and contains an archbiſhop's ſee, and a univerſity. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca, and ſeveral other academies are now eſtabliſhed at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great ſtate, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they ſell from their cellar windows, and ſometimes they even hang out a broken flaſk, as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal, beſides wine and fruits, in gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Since the acceſſion of the archduke Peter Leopald, brother to the preſent emperor, to this duchy, a great reformation has been introduced, both into the government, and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuſcany could bring to the field, upon occaſion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its preſent revenues are above 500,000 l. a year. The other principal towns of Tuſcany, are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the firſt and laſt are much decayed.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, which is a ſmall free commonwealth, lying on the Tuſcan ſea, in a moſt delightful plain, are the moſt induſtrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, ſo that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000 l. ſterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, eſpecially olives. This republic is under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria.

The republic of St. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical curioſity. Its territories conſiſt of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope, and the inoffenſive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the ſmall value of their territory, have preſerved its conſtitution.

The duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guaſtalla, now form one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy of its extent. The ſoil of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richeſt fruits and paſturages, and contain conſiderable manufactures of ſilk. It is the ſeat of a biſhop's ſee, and an univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Coreggio. The preſent duke of Parma, is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon

ſon to Don Philip the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was lately the ſeat of a bloody war between the Auſtrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings, but his catholic majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, is ſaid to have carried with him thither, the moſt remarkable pictures, and moveable curioſities. The duke's court is thought to be the politeſt of any in Italy, and it is ſaid that his revenues exceed 100,000 l. ſterling a year, a ſum which I am apt to think is exaggerated. The city of Parma is ſaid to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milaneſe, in poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria. The capital is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boaſt that Virgil was a native of their country.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina) is ſtill governed by its own duke, the head of the houſe of Eſte, from whom the family of Brunſwick deſcended. The duke is abſolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria, and is a vaſſal of the empire. His dominions, however, are far from being flouriſhing, though very improveable, they having been alternately waſted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of Popiſh tyranny, ſuperſtition, and oppreſſion, are here ſeen in the higheſt perfection. Thoſe ſpots, which under the maſters of the world, were formed into ſo many terreſtrial paradiſes, ſurrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious peſtilential marſhes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords at preſent a miſerable ſubſiſtence to about 500. Notwithſtanding this, the pope is a conſiderable temporal prince, and ſome ſuppoſe that his annual revenue amounts to above a million ſterling, tho' ſome authors calculate them to be much higher. When we ſpeak comparatively, the ſum of a million ſterling is too high a revenue to ariſe from his territorial poſſeſſions; his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that ſum, is now diminiſhed by the ſuppreſſion of the order of the Jeſuits, from whom he drew vaſt ſupplies, and the meaſures taken by the popiſh powers, for preventing the great eccleſiaſtical iſſues of money to Rome. According to the beſt and lateſt accounts, the taxes upon the proviſions and lodgings, furniſhed to foreigners, who ſpend immenſe ſums in viſiting his dominions, form now the greateſt part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened, within theſe 20 years paſt, there is reaſon to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits, which the houſes of Auſtria, and Bourbon, ſhall pleaſe to deſcribe. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The diſcouragement of induſtry and agriculture, ſeems to be interwoven in the conſtitution of the papal government, which is veſted in proud lazy eccleſiaſtics. Their indolence, and the fanaticiſm of their worſhip, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and impoſing upon ſtrangers,

ſtrangers, to induſtry and agriculture, eſpecially as they muſt hold their properties, by the precarious tenure of the will of their ſuperiors. In ſhort, the inhabitants of many parts of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate muſt periſh through their ſloth, did not the fertility of their ſoil ſpontaneouſly afford them ſubſiſtence. I am here, however, to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and ſloth of the lower ranks, do not take their riſe from their natural diſpoſitions.

This obſervation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and coſtly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repoſitory of taſte and magnificence. This paſſion diſabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the induſtry, or relieving the wants of their ſubjects, and its miſerable effects are ſeen in many parts of Italy. The ſplendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions, are inexpreſſible, and partly account for the miſery of the ſubjects. This cenſure, however, admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards. I have already touched upon its curioſities and antiquities. It ſtands upon the Tyber, an inconſiderable river, when compared to the Thames, and navigated by ſmall boats, barges and lighters. The caſtle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortreſs, would be found to be a place of ſmall ſtrength, were it regularly beſieged. The city ſtanding upon the ruins of antient Rome lies much higher, ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was originally built. When we conſider Rome, as it now ſtands, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe that it exceeds antient Rome itſelf, in the magnificence of its ſtructures; nothing in the old city, when miſtreſs of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church, and perhaps many other churches in Rome, exceed in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utenſils and furniture, her antient temples, though it muſt be acknowledged that the Pantheon muſt have been an amazing ſtructure. The inhabitants of Rome in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we conſider that the ſpirit of travelling is much encreaſed ſince that time, we cannot reaſonably ſuppoſe them to be diminiſhed at preſent.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes he has his guards, or ſbirri, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magiſtrates, both eccleſiaſtical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inſpection of his holineſs. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice legates. He monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and has always a ſufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. The preſent pope, who has taken the name of Clement XIV. has wiſely diſclaimed all intention of oppoſing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but thoſe of prayers and ſupplications.

I have under the head of religion mentioned the eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy.

As to the rota, and other ſubordinate chambers of this complicated juriſdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under my plan. Under a government ſo conſtituted, it cannot be ſuppoſed that the commercial exports of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate are of much value.

Next

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bologneſe, is the moſt conſiderable city in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate a altere, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more ſociably and comfortably, than the other ſubjects of the pope; and perhaps their diſtance from Rome, which is 165 miles north-weſt, has contributed to their eaſe. The reſt of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate contains many towns celebrated in antient hiſtory, and even now exhibiting the moſt ſtriking veſtiges of their flouriſhing ſtate about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at preſent little better than deſolate, though here and there, a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is ſupported by the toil and ſweat of the neighbouring peaſants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO, (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael) ANCONA, and many other ſtates, and cities, illuſtrious in former times, are now to be ſeen only in their ruins, and antient hiſtory. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obſcure ſpot never thought or heard of, in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious reſort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion induſtriouſly propagated by the Romiſh clergy, that the houſe, in which the Virgin Mary is ſaid to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumſtances, ſuch as that all the trees, on the arrival of the ſacred manſion, bowed with the profoundeſt reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this houſe, from being carried to other places, and expoſed as relicks to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a ſmall apartment, ſeparated from the others by a ſilver balluſtrade, which has a gate of the ſame metal. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the gold chains, the rings, and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is loaded, and the angels of ſolid gold, who are here placed on every ſide, are equally enriched with the moſt precious diamonds. To the ſuperſtition of Roman-catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this maſs of treaſure. It has been matter of ſurprize, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks upon Loretto, eſpecially as it is badly fortified, and ſtands near the ſea.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies, (the name of Sicily being common to both) is poſſeſſed of the largeſt dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium Campania, Apulia, Magna Grecia, and the iſland of Sicily. They are bounded on all ſides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-eaſt, where Naples terminates on the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. The air is hot, and its ſoil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called Vino Greco, and Lachrymæ Chriſti, are excellent. The city of Naples its capital, which is extremely ſuperb, and adorned with all the profuſion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the moſt delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Veſuvius, which ſometimes threaten the city with deſtruction, and the ſoil being peſtered with inſects and reptiles, ſome of which are venomous.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the proteſtants live here with great freedom; and

and though his Neapolitan majeſty preſents to his holineſs every year, a palfrey, as an acknowledgement that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquiſition is eſtabliſhed in Naples. The preſent revenues of that king, amount to above 750,000 l. ſterling a year, but it is more than probable that, by the new eſtabliſhed police purſued by the princes of the houſe of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majeſty's annual income will conſiderably exceed a million ſterling. He has a numerous but poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and other high-ſounding titles; and his capital, by far the moſt populous in Italy, contains, at leaſt, 300,000 inhabitants. Through every ſpot of this kingdom the traveller may be ſaid to tread on Claſſic ground, and no country preſents the eye with more beautiful proſpects.

The iſland of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity, but its cultivation, and conſequently fertility, is greatly diminiſhed. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Italy. Palermo, its capital, is ſaid to contain 120,000 inhabitants, and both that city and Meſſina, carry on a briſk trade.

The iſland of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles weſt of Leghorn. Its capital, Cagliari, is an univerſity, an archbiſhopric, and the ſeat of the viceroy. It is thought that his Sardinian majeſty's revenues, from this iſland, do not exceed 5000 l. ſterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fiſhery. Its air is bad from its marſhes and moraſſes. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the houſe of Savoy.

The iſland of CORSICA lies oppoſite the Genoeſe continent, between the gulph of Genoa, and the iſland of Sardinia, and is beſt known by the noble ſtand which the inhabitants have made of late under general Paoli, for their liberty, againſt their Genoeſe tyrants, and afterwards the French arms, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or ſituation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has alſo ſome cattle and horſes, and is plentifully ſupplied, both by the ſea and rivers, with fiſh. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 120,000. Baſtia, the capital, is a place of ſome ſtrength, but other towns of the iſland, that were in poſſeſſion of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

CAPREA, ISCHIA, and other iſlands, on the coaſts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to diſtinguiſh them, but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful ſummer retreats for their owners.

I ſhall here mention the iſle of MALTA, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian iſlands. It was formerly called Melita, and is ſituated in 15 deg. E. long. and 45 deg. N. lat. 60 miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but exceſſively hot; the whole iſland ſeems to be a white rock covered with a thin ſurface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden ſtuff of all kinds. This iſland, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, and they are now known by the diſtinction of the knights of

f Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity, but they keep e former much better than the latter. They have conſiderable poſſeſſions the Roman-catholic countries on the continent, and are under the go- ernment of a grand maſter, who is elected for life. They are conſidered the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Turks on that ſide. They ear croſſes of a particular form, and they never have degenerated from e military glory of their predeceſſors. They are generally of noble fa- ilies, and are ranked according to their nations. Not only their chief wn Valetta, or Malta, and its harbour, but their whole iſland is ſo well rtified, as to be deemed impregnable by the infidels.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably firſt peopled from Greece, as we have entioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader, for the antient iſtory of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known orld under the Romans. The ſucceſſors of Charlemagne claimed, and or ſome time poſſeſſed the ſovereignty of Italy, but their civil wars at ome, ſoon gave an opportunity to their governors, to either aſſume or urchaſe the ſovereignty of the ſeveral ſtates over which they preſided.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the courts of Mauri- nne, the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, whoſe father (as I ave already obſerved) became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the qua- ruple alliance concluded in 1718*.

The Milaneſe, the faireſt portion in Italy, went through ſeveral hands; he Viſcontis were ſucceeded by the Galeazzos, and the Sforzas, but fell at aſt into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who ave it to his ſon Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown ill the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the imperialiſts. Theſe were diſpoſſeſſed of it in 1743; but by the emperor's ceſſion of Naples and Sicily, to the preſent king of Spain, it returned to the houſe f Auſtria, who governs it by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited as a fief of the empire, to he houſe of Auſtria, which now poſſeſſes it, the laſt duke dying without male iſſue; but Guaſtella was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The firſt duke of Parma was natural ſon to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy ſee in 1545, by pope Julius II. The deſcendants of the houſe of Farneſe terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his preſent catholic majeſty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Placentia.

The Venetians were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Conſtantinople itſelf, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Aſia. They were more than once brought to the brink of deſtruction, by the confederacies formed againſt them, among the other powers of Europe, eſpecially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often ſaved by the diſunion of the confederates. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by

* Charles Emanuel III. king of Sardinia, was born in 1701, and aſcended the throne in 1730. He hath iſſue,

1. Victor-Ame-Maria, duke of Savoy, born in 1726; and married in 1750, to Maria-Antonietta, of Spain, born in 1729.

2. Benedict-Maurice, duke de Chablais, born 1741: and four daughters.

by the cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions, on the continent, and ſo late as the year 1715, they loſt the Morea.

The Genoeſe, for ſome time, diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean ſea, with the Venetians, but were ſeldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes ſubjected by the French and imperialiſts. Their doge or firſt magiſtrate is crowned king of Corſica, though it does not clearly appear by what title, and not being able to enforce their claim by the ſword, they ſold it to the French, who ſubdued the inhabitants after a brave reſiſtance. The ſucceſsful effort made by the Genoeſe in driving the victorious Auſtrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, has few parallels in hiſtory, and ſerves to ſhew the effects of deſpair under oppreſſion. At preſent they are poſſeſſed of revenue, barely ſufficient to preſerve the appearance of a ſovereign ſtate.

The great duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies, to the year 1240, when the famous diſtinctions of the Gwelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes then perſuaded the imperial governors in Tuſcany, to put themſelves under the protection of the church, but the Florentines, in a ſhort time, formed themſelves into a free common-wealth, and bravely defended their liberties againſt both parties by turns. Faction at laſt ſhook their freedom, and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, who was deſervedly called the Father of his Country, being in the ſecret, ſhared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueze. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe, enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power, and pope Pius V. gave one of his deſcendents Coſmo (the great patron of the arts) the title of great duke of Tuſcany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſton de Medicis in 1737, without iſſue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law, the duke of Lorrain, and late emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his ſecond ſon, brother to the preſent emperor, is now grand duke, and Tuſcany aſſumes a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade, and ſeveral ſhips of very conſiderable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts to prevent the depredation of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives, which ſeems to be incorporated with their air. Chriſtians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks eſtabliſhed there, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance, a moſt reſpectable monarchy flouriſhing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at laſt came into the poſſeſſion of the French;

and

and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions, and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards was ſo oppreſſive, that it gave riſe to the famous revolt, headed by Maſſaniello, a young fiſherman, without ſhoes or ſtockings. His ſucceſs was ſo ſurprizing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to aboliſh the oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before theſe could be re-eſtabliſhed perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1706, when the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took poſſeſſion of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's ſon, to the poſſeſſion of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, about the poſſeſſion of Naples, and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies; this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effuſion of blood was ſtopt by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at firſt demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos, remained king of Naples.

Upon his acceſſion to the crown of Spain in 1759, it being found, by the inſpection of phyſicians, and other trials, that his eldeſt ſon was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he reſigned the crown of Naples to his third ſon, Ferdinand IV. who lately married an archduchеſs of Auſtria *.

The hiſtory of the Papacy is connected with that of Chriſtendom itſelf. The moſt ſolid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, counteſs of Tuſcany, and heireſs to the greateſt part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his acceſſion in 1073, was ſo well known by the name of Hildebrand.) The ignorance of the laity, and the other cauſes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the reformation, have been already mentioned. Even ſince that æra the ſtate of Europe has been ſuch, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakneſs and bigotry of temporal princes, who ſeem now to be recovering from their religious deluſions.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The order of Jeſuits, who are not improperly called its Janiſſaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but juſt tolerated in other popiſh countries. The pope himſelf is treated by Roman-catholic princes, with very little more ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reaſonable to believe, will terminate in a total ſeparation from the holy ſee of all its foreign emoluments, which even, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were immenſe, and to the reducing his holineſs to the exerciſe of his eccleſiaſtical functions as firſt biſhop of Chriſtendom †.

* Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, third ſon of the preſent king of Spain, was born in 1751, and married 1768, to the archduchеſs Maria-Caroline-Louiſa, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany, born in 1752.

† Francis Laurentius Ganganelli, was elected pope in 1769, and took upon him the name of Clement XIV.

TURKEY.

The Grand Signior's Dominions are divided into

1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.
2. TURKEY IN ASIA.
3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1000	between	17 and 40 east longitude.
Breadth	900		36 and 49 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the north; by Circaſſia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Helleſpont, and Archipelago, on the eaſt; by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth; by the ſame ſea, and the Venetian and Auſtrian territories, on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
On the north coaſt of the Black Sea are the provinces of — —	Crim and Little Tartary, the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſe	Precop
		Brachiſeria
		Kaffa
	Budziac Tartary —	Oczakow.
North of the Danube are the provinces of —	Beſſarabia —	Bender
		Belgorod
	Moldavia, olim Dacia — —	Jazy
		Chotzim
		Falczin
	Wallachia, another part of the ancient Dacia —	Tergoviſc.
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the eaſt part of the ancient Myſia ——	Widin
		Nicopoli
		Siliſtria
		Scopia
	Servia, the weſt part of Myſia	Belgrade
		Semendria
		Niſſa
	Boſnia, part of the antient Illyricum	Seraio.
On the Boſphorus and Helleſpont ——	Romania, olim Thrace ——	Conſtantinople, N.L.41-E.L.28-56
		Adrianople
South of mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north Part of the ancient Greece — —	Macedonia —	Strymon
		Conteſſa
	Theſſaly, now Janua	Salonichi
	Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia	Athens
		Thebes
		Lepanto.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
n the Adriatic sea or	Epirus	Chimæra
		Butrinto
		Durazzo
lph of Venice, the	Albanea	Dulcigno
cient Illyricum —	Dalmatia	Drino
		Narenza
	Raguſa republic	Raguſa.
	Corinthia	Corinth
	Argos	Argos
		Napoli de Romania
	Sparta	Lacedæmon, now Miſitra, on the river Eurotus
the Morea, the an-	Olympia, where the	Olympia, or
nt Peloponneſus, be-	Games were held	Longinica, on
g the ſouth diviſion of		the river Al-
reece, are		pheus
	Arcadia	Modon
		Coron
	Elis	Patras
		Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS AND WATER.] Nature has laviſhed upon the habitants of Turkey, all her bleſſings in thoſe four particulars. The il, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond deſcription. The air is ubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unleſs when it is corrupted m the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanſs of the Turkiſh manner of living. The ſeaſons are here regular, and aſant, and have been celebrated from the remoteſt times of antiquity. he Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholeſomeſs of the water all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are the moſt celebrated of any in the world, d at the ſame time often the moſt fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninſula, running into the Egean ſea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, lebrated in Grecian fables, ſeparate Theſſaly from Epirus. Parnaſſus, famous for being conſecrated to the Muſes, is well known. Mount aenus is likewiſe often mentioned by the poets; but moſt of the other ountains have changed their names, witneſs the mountains Suha, Wiſka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the moſt celebrated ountains above mentioned, have had modern names impoſed upon them, the Barbarians in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine, or Black Sea; the Palus Maeotis, or Sea of ſaph; the ſea of Marmora, which ſeparates Europe from Aſia; the Aripelago; the Ionian ſea, and the Levant, are ſo many evidences that urkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Conſtantinople ſtands, all other countries had the beſt claim to be miſtreſs of the world.

STRAITS.] Thoſe of the Helleſpont and Boſphorus, are joined to the a Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as antient hiſtory.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neiſter, the Neiper, and the on, are the beſt known rivers in this country, though many others have en celebrated by poets and hiſtorians.

LAKES.] Theſe are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applauſe, either by the antients or moderns. The Lago di Sentari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave, and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, ſo famous for its harpies, and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx, conceived by the antients to be the paſſage into hell, iſſues.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all ſorts of mines, and its marbles are eſteemed the fineſt in the world.

VEGETABLES AND PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe are excellent all over the European Turkey, eſpecially when aſſiſted by the ſmalleſt degree of induſtry. Beſides pot and garden herbs of almoſt every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon ſweetneſs, excellent figs, almonds, olives and cotton. Beſides theſe, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Theſſalian, or Turkiſh horſes, are excellent both for their beauty and ſervice. The black cattle are large, eſpecially in Greece. The goats are a moſt valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and fleſh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Babadagi, furniſh the beſt feathers for arrows for the Turkiſh and Tartar archers, and they ſell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece, as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupedes, all over Turkey in Europe, but the Turks and Mahometans in general, are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Almoſt every ſpot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, preſents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Iſthmus of Corinth, the ruin of Neptune's temple, and the theatre, where the Iſthmean games were celebrated, are ſtill viſible. Athens, which contains at preſent above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful ſource of the moſt magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world, and to particularize them would be endleſs. I cannot, however, omit mentioning the temple of Minerva, thought by ſome to be the fineſt extant. The temple of the eight winds, and the lantern of Demoſthenes, are ſtill entire. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo, are ſtill viſible at Caſtri, on the ſouth ſide of mount Parnaſſus, and the marble ſteps that deſcend to a pleaſant running water, ſuppoſed to be the renowned Caſtalian ſpring, with the niches for ſtatues in the rock, are ſtill diſcernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is ſtill a natural curioſity in Livadiæ, the old Bœotia.

CITIES.] Conſtantinople, the capital of this great empire, is ſituated on the European ſide of the Boſphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the antient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, as a more inviting ſituation than Rome, for the ſeat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having eſcaped the deſtructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greateſt as well as the moſt beautiful city in Europe, and the only one during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the antient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe, for the commodities of the Eaſt-Indies. It derived alſo great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the cruſaders, and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers,

the ages of the cruſades, ſpeak of it with aſtoniſhment. "O what a vaſt city is Conſtantinople, (exclaims one when he firſt beheld it) and how beautiful! how many monaſteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art; how many manufactures are there in the city amazing to behold! It would be aſtoniſhing to relate how it abounds with all good things, with gold, ſilver, and ſtuffs of various kinds; for every hour ſhips arrive in the port with all things neceſſary for the uſe of man." Conſtantinople is even at this day one of the fineſt cities in the world by its ſituation and its port. It is frequently called *the Port*, by way of eminence. The proſpect from it is noble. It abounds with antiquities. The moſque of St. Sophia, once a Chriſtian church, is thought in ſome reſpects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St. Peter's at Rome. The city itſelf is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio ſtanding on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a proſpect of the delightful coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, which is not to be equalled. Both the magnitude and population of Conſtantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. The beſt authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are ſaid to be Greeks and Armenians, and the reſt are Jews and Turks. Others ſuppoſe the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military ſtrength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, theſe ſeveral heads depending on the ſame principles all over the empire, ſhall be mentioned under Turkey in Aſia.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being Part of Antient GREECE.

I Shall mention thoſe iſlands chiefly for the uſe of ſuch readers as are converſant with antient hiſtory, of which they make ſo diſtinguiſhed a part.

NEGROPONT, the antient Eubœa, ſtretches from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia or Livadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad. Here the Turkiſh gallies lie. The tides on its coaſts are irregular; and the iſland itſelf abounds in corn, wine, and fruit.

LEMNOS, lies on the north part of the Egean ſea or Archipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches ariſe from its mineral earth, ſometimes called *terra Lemna* or *ſigillata*, becauſe it is ſealed up by the Turks, who receive therefrom a conſiderable revenue.

TENEDOS, is remarkable only for its lying oppoſite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired and left the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity.

SCYROS, is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains.

LESBOS, or MYTELINE, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philoſophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about 80 miles weſt of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This iſland, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks,

10,000 Turks, and above 3,000 Latins. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold, and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk-tree, or mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. They are not, however, renowned for their modesty or virtue; and even the Greek nuns are said to be lavish of their favours. Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and shew a little square house, which they call Homer's School. The Greeks pay a capitation tax for the exercise of their religion and laws; the rate of the highest rank is ten crowns a-head, the second three, and the meanest two and a half, yearly.

SAMOS, lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of the Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long, and 15 broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island, besides, produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies PATMOS, about 20 miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the island, shew a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which lies south of the islands Mycone and Tirse, and almost midway between the continents of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS, lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHEREA, lies south-east of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN, is one of the most southermost islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. One third of the people are of the Latin church, and subject to a popish bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth, there was an earthquake, attended with most dreadful lightnings and thunders and boilings of the sea for several days, so that when it arose out of the sea it was a mere volcano, but the burnings soon ceased. It is about

200 feet above the sea, and at the time of its first emerging it was about a mile broad and five miles in circumference, but it has since encreased. Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, but the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous island of RHODES is situated about 20 miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about 50 miles long, and 25 broad. This island abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life, but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of its harbour, and was 50 fathom wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world; one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the seat of legislature to all Greece, and many other historical and political distinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long and sixty broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa. The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the vallies of this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself till the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS, lies in the Levant sea, about 30 miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 150 miles long and 70 broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and during the time of the Crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, and the see of a Greek archbishop. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to a surprizing degree, though the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250 l. a year. The female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, the antient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I. king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who still hold that empty honour.

The islands in the Ionian sea are, SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTA MAURA, CORFU, and others of smaller note, particularly ISOLA DEL COMPARE, which would not deserve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses.

Those islands in general are fruitful. Zante, belonging to the Venetians, has a populous capital of the same name, and is a place of considerable trade, especially in fruits. Corfu, which is the capital of that island, is a place of great strength, and belongs likewise to the Venetians, who concern themselves very little about the welfare or government of those and other islands, so that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character.

ASIA.

AS Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is also superior to them in the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrancy and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices, and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richness of its metals, and the fineness of its silks and cottons. It was in Asia, according to the sacred records, that the Allwise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind was to spring. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once favourite people the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the oracles of truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious gospel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his disciples and followers. Here the first christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and watered with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts this quarter claims a superiority over the rest; but it must be owned that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath lost much of its antient splendor, and from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is become a wild uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or farther from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live near the same latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies among the Chinese, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vaſt extent of territory was ſucceſſively governed in antient times by the Aſſyrians, the Medes, the Perſians, and the Greeks; but the immenſe regions of India and China were little known to Alexander or the conquerors of the antient world. Upon the decline of thoſe empires, great part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, or, as they were uſually called, Saracens, founded in Aſia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extenſive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatneſs ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every ſide, took poſſeſſion of the middle regions of Aſia, which they ſtill enjoy. Beſides the countries poſſeſſed by the Turks and Ruſſians, Aſia contains at preſent three powerful empires, the Chineſe, the Mogul, and the Perſian, upon which the leſſer kingdoms and ſovereignties of Aſia generally depend. The prevailing form of government in this diviſion of the globe is abſolute monarchy. If any of them can be ſaid to enjoy ſome ſhare of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Aſiatic nations, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not conceive how it was poſſible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a deſpotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Perſia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profeſs Mahometiſm. The Perſian and Indian Mahometans are of the ſect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Aſiatic iſlands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia. Chriſtianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apoſtles and primitive fathers, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe by the conqueſts of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and ſufferings of popiſh miſſionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the moſt diſtant regions, and among the groſſeſt idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of ſucceſs, owing, in a great meaſure, to the avarice and profligacy of the Europeans, who reſort thither in ſearch of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages ſpoken in Aſia are, the modern Greek, the Turkiſh, the Ruſſian, the Tartarian, the Perſian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chineſe, and the Japaneſe. The European languages are alſo ſpoken upon the coaſts of India and China.

The continent of Aſia is ſituated between 25 and 180 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanels on the weſt, to the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the moſt ſouthern part of Malacca, to the moſt northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the weſt it is ſeparated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the ſea of Marmora, the Boſphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the eaſt, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, which ſeparates it from America; and on the ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; ſo that it is almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow.

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.	Diſt. & bearing from London.	Religion.
Tartary.	Ruſſian	The bounds of theſe parts are unlimited, each power puſhing on his conqueſts as far as he can.		Tobolſki	2160 N. E.	Chriſt. & Pag.
	Chineſe			Chynian	4480 N. E.	Pagans
	Mogulean			Tibet	3780 E.	Pagans
	Independant			Samarcand	2800 E.	Pagans
	China	1500	1260	Pekin	4320 S. E.	Pagans
	Mogul Emp.	2000	1500	Delly	3720 S. E.	Mah. & Pag.
	India	2000	1000	Siam or Pegu	504 S. E.	Pagans
	Perſia	1300	1100	Iſpahan	2460 S. E.	Mahometans
Turkey in Aſia.	Part of Arabia	1300	1200	Mecca	2640 S. E.	Mahometans
	Syria	270	160	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	Chriſt. & Mah.
	Holy Land	210	90	Jeruſalem	1920 S. E.	Chriſt. & Mah.
	Natolia	750	308	Burſa or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	Mahometans
	Diarbic or Meſopotamia	560	310	Bagdat	2160 S. E.	Mahometans, with ſome few Chriſtians.
	Turcomania	360	300	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	
	Georgia	* * *	* * *	Teflis	1920 E.	

All the iſlands of Aſia (except Cyprus, already deſcribed, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eaſtern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have ſettlements, are

Iſlands.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to.
The Japaneſe iſles —	Jeddo — —	Dutch
The Ladrones — —	Guam — —	Spain
Formoſa — — —	Tai-ouan-fou — —	China
The Philippines —	Manilla — —	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove iſles,	Victoria Fort — —	Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg iſles,	Lantor — —	Dutch
Amboyna { ſurrounding the	Amboyna — —	Dutch
Celebes { Molucca and	Macaſſar — —	Dutch
Gilolo, &c. { Banda iſles	Gilolo — — —	Dutch
The Sunda iſles { Borneo —	Borneo, Caytongee —	All nations
{ Sumatra —	Achen, Bencoolen —	Engliſh and Dutch
{ Java, &c. —	Batavia, Bantam — ---	Dutch
The Andaman and Nicobar iſles	Andaman, Nicobar ---	All nations
Ceylon — — —	Candy --- --- ---	Dutch
The Maldives — —	Caridon --- --- ---	All nations
Bombay — — —	Bombay --- --- ---	Engliſh
The Kurile iſles, and thoſe in the ſea of Kamſchatka, lately diſcovered by the Ruſſians,	--- --- --- ---	Ruſſia.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1000	between	27 and 46 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 800		28 and 45 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circaſſia, on the north; by Perſia, on the eaſt; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the ſouth; and by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, and Propontis, which ſeparate it from Europe, on the weſt.


ASIA.
From the best
Authorities.
ENGLAND
London
Lapland
North
SWEDEN
Stockholm
Arctic Circle
Nova Zembla
BALTIC S.
RUSSIA
Archangel
Petersburg
GERMANY
POLAND
Riga
Warsaw
Cracow
EUROPE
Vienna
Belgrade
Danube R.
Constantinople
ITALY
Rome
Gulf of Venice
Naples
Scilly
TURKEY
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Astrakhan
Volga R.
Vaika
Obi R.
Tobol
Tartary
Turkestan
Tashkant
Samarkand
Bucharia
Persia
Ispahan
Mashad
Tauris
Trebisond
Smyrna
Sinas
Aleppo
Jerusalem
Damascus
Cairo
Suez
Tropic of Cancer
Arabia
Mecca
Medina
Mascat
Sanaa
Aden
Str. of Babelmandel
Socotra
Guardafui
Abassia
Nubia
Gondar
Africa
C. de Bassas
Maldivas Is.
Kalikut
Kochin
C. Comorin
Colombo
Madagascar I.
Indian
Surat
Bombay
Goa
Cabul
Delhi
Agra
Lahor
Ormus
Persian G.
Red Sea
Arabian G.
Bassora
Gomron
Shiraz
Jiddo
Mecca
Yamama
Nejed
Hejaz
Kebir
Kaschgar
Yarkand
Kotan
Lop
Turfan
Hami
Tangut
Chinese Empire
Pekin
Nanking
Canton
Japan
Corea
Tartary
Siberia
Yenisei
Lena R.
Jakutsk
Irkutsk
Baikal L.
Selinginsk
Nova Zembla
Obi
Tobol
Irtish R.
Ob R.
Mangazea
Pelim
Tobolsk
Kasan
Moscow
Wolodimir
Nishon
Volga
Don R.
Azof
Azof sea
Mt. Caucasus
Trebisond
Derbent
Caspian
Usbeck
Tartary
Kharism
Bucharia
Balk
Kabul
Candahar
Persia
Ispahan
Mashad
Tauris
Aleppo
Jerusalem
Damascus
Cairo
Suez
Red Sea
Arabian G.
Bassora
Gomron
Shiraz
Jiddo
Mecca
Medina
Yamama
Nejed
Hejaz
Mascat
Sanaa
Aden
Str. of Babelmandel
Socotra
Guardafui
Abassia
Nubia
Gondar
Africa
C. de Bassas
Maldivas Is.
Kalikut
Kochin
C. Comorin
Colombo
Madagascar I.
Indian
Surat
Bombay
Goa
Cabul
Delhi
Agra
Lahor
Ormus
Persian G.
Jubo
I. de l'Amirante
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Sea of Kamchatka
Kuriles Is
Jesso
Sagalin
Tartary
Japan
China
Formosa I.
Luconia I.
Manilla
Philippin Isles
Mindanao I.
Gilolo I.
Equinoctial Line
Borneo
Celebes
New Guinea
Java
Timor I.
Deep Bay
De Witts Land
New Holland
VII
VIII
IX
X Hours E. from London.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. Eyraco Arabic or Chaldea —	Bossora and Bagdat.
	2. Diarbec or Mesopotamia —	Diarbec, Orfa, and Mousoul.
	3. Curdistan or Assyria — —	Nineveh and Betlis.
	4. Turcomania or Armenia — —	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia — —	Amarchia and Gonie.
Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west,	1. Natolia Proper —	Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus.
	2. Amasia —	Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia —	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania —	Satalia and Terasso.
East of the Levant Sea,	Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land	Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jerusalem.

MOUNTAINS.] These are famous in sacred as well as prophane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus; Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucasus and Arrarat; Lebanon; and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are the Euphrates; Tigris; Orantes; Meander; Sarabat; Kara; and Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the Author of nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a frightful scourge of mankind, wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in predestination, which prevents them from using precaution to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, I need scarcely inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in those provinces, are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in largeness. In short, nature has brought all her productions here to the highest perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The ſame may be ſaid of their animals. The breed of the Turkiſh and Arabian horſes, the latter eſpecially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have conſiderably improved that of the Engliſh. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to thoſe countries, but they contain all that are neceſſary for the uſe of mankind. Camels are here in much requeſt, from their ſtrength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their numerous herds of goats furniſh the materials for their camblets. Their kids and ſheep are exquiſite eating, and are ſaid to ſurpaſs, in flavour and taſte, thoſe of Europe; but their other butcher's meat, beef particularly, is not ſo fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in vaſt perfection; their oſtriches are well known by their tallneſs, ſtupidity, and heavineſs. The Roman epicures prized no fiſh except lampreys, mullets, and oyſters, but thoſe that were found in Aſia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richeſt kingdoms and provinces of Europe; and its medicinal ſprings and baths exceed thoſe of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS.] THE population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the beſt geographers been able to aſcertain it, becauſe of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not ſo great as it was before the Chriſtian æra, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various cauſes, and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reaſons, and particularly becauſe the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practiſed, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cauſe of depopulation. The Turkiſh emperor, however, has more ſubjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robuſt men: when young their complexions are fair, and their faces handſome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handſome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, ſedate, and paſſive; but when agitated by paſſion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, ſuperſtitious, and moroſe. Though uncapable of much benevolence, or even humanity with regard to Jews, Chriſtians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, they are not devoid of ſocial affections for thoſe of their own religion. But intereſt is their ſupreme good, and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, conſanguinity, or friendſhip, are ſpeedily diſſolved. The morals of the Aſiatic Turks are far preferable to thoſe of the European. They are hoſpitable to ſtrangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewiſe ſaid to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings.

dealings. Their charity and public ſpirit is moſt conſpicuous in their building caravanſeras or places of entertainment on roads that are deſtitute of accommodations, for the refreſhment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view, they ſearch out the beſt ſprings, and dig wells, which in thoſe countries is a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks ſit croſs-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are ſimple and confined, ſeldom reaching without the walls of their own houſes, where they ſit converſing with their women, drinking coffee, ſmoaking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curioſity to be informed of the ſtate of their own, or any other country. If a viſier, baſhaw, or other officer, is turned out, or ſtrangled, they ſay no more on the occaſion, than that there will be a new viſier or governor, ſeldom enquiring into the reaſon of the diſgrace of the former miniſter. They are perfect ſtrangers to wit and agreeable converſation. They have few printed books, and ſeldom read any other than the Alcoran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negociated in Turkey without preſents; and here juſtice may be bought and ſold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they ſup at five in the winter and ſix in the ſummer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high ſeaſoned. Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, ſometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief diſh is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup is high ſeaſoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, ſherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them ſenſations reſembling thoſe of intoxication. Gueſts of high rank ſometimes have their beards perfumed by a female ſlave of the family. They are temperate and ſober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the uſe of wine; though in private many of them indulge themſelves in the uſe of ſtrong liquors. Their common ſalutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hands on their breaſt. They ſleep, in linen waiſtcoats and drawers, upon mattreſſes, and cover themſelves with a quilt. Few or none of the conſiderable inhabitants of this vaſt empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diverſion. The moſt religious among them find, however, ſufficient exerciſe when they conform themſelves to the frequent oblations, prayers, and rites preſcribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diverſions conſiſt in ſhooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purpoſes, that they may know the ſtrength of their dependants. Within doors, the cheſs or draught-board are their uſual amuſements; and if they play at chance games, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Alcoran.

DRESS.] The men ſhave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they ſleep. Their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtband, and over them they throw a long veſt, which they tie with a ſaſh, and over the veſt they wear a looſe gown ſomewhat ſhorter.

Their

Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their ſtockings; and inſtead of ſhoes they wear ſlippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or houſe. They ſuffer no Chriſtians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear ſtiffened caps upon their heads with horns ſomething like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad they are ſo muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no uſe of paint to heighten their beauty, or to diſguiſe their complexion, but they often tinge their hands and feet with henna, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make uſe of the ſame expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negociated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a ſum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or proper magiſtrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity, and the money is generally employed in furniſhing the houſe of the young couple. A man may marry as many women as he can maintain, but under the reſtriction of a cenſorial power, to prevent too great a plurality of wives. Beſides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of Seraglio of women; but all theſe indulgencies are ſometimes inſufficient to gratify their unnatural deſires.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpſe is attended by the relations, chanting paſſages from the Koran; and after being depoſited in a moſque (for ſo they call their temples) they are buried in a field, by the iman or prieſt, who pronounces a funeral ſermon at the time of the interment. The male relations expreſs their ſorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a huſband, they wear a particular head-dreſs, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion is that of the Mahometan, ſo called from Mahomet the author of it; ſome account of which the reader will find in the following hiſtory of Arabia, the native country of that impoſtor. The Turks profeſs that of the ſect of Omar; but theſe are ſplit into as many ſectaries as their neighbours the Chriſtians. There is no ordination among their clergy, any perſon may be a prieſt that pleaſes to take the habit and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleaſes. Their chief prieſt or mufti ſeems to have great power in the ſtate.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS OF CHRISTIANS.] The Turkiſh government having formed theſe into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they are moſt profitable; but the hardſhips impoſed upon the Greek church are ſuch, as muſt always diſpoſe that people to favour any revolution of government. Jeruſalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an eccleſiaſtical authority over their votaries. The ſame may be ſaid of the Neſtorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege has its archbiſhop or biſhop.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, which ſeems to have been the mother tongue of the antient Turks; the Greek modernized, but ſtill bearing a relation to the old

ld language; the Arabic, and the Syriac, a dialect of which is ſtill poken. A ſpecimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoſter: *Pater hemas, opios iſo ees tos ouranous: hagia ſtbito to onoma ſou: na rti be baſilia ſou: to thelema ſou na genetez itzon en te ge, os is ton oura-on: to pſomi hemas doze hemas ſemoren: kæ ſi choraſe hèmos ta crimata emon itzone, kæ hemas ſichoraſomen ekinous opou: mas adikounkæ men ter-es hemais is to piraſmo, alla ſoſon hemas apo to kaxo.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] I know of none among the Turks, ho profeſs a ſovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was he native country of genius, arts, and ſciences, produces at preſent, eſides Turks, numerous bands of chriſtian biſhops, prieſts, and monks, ho in general are as ignorant as the Turks themſelves, and are di-ided into various abſurd ſects of what they call chriſtianity.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Theſe are ſo various that they have furniſhed matter for ma- voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. Thoſe ountries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture, nd ſculpture, and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depre-ations they have ſuffered from the Europeans, ſeem to have diminiſh-d their number. They are more or leſs perfect, according to the air, oil, or climate, in which they ſtand, and all of them bear deplora-le marks of neglect. Many of the fineſt temples are converted into Turkiſh moſques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than hoſe which remain in ruins. Amidſt ſuch a plenitude of curioſities, ll that can be done here is to ſelect ſome of the moſt ſtriking; and ſhall begin with Balbec and Palmyra, which form the pride of all ntiquity.

Balbec is ſituated on a riſing plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Da-aſcus, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo Syria. Its remains of antiquity diſ-lay, according to the beſt judges, the boldeſt plan that ever was at-empted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is nexpreſſibly ſuperb, though disfigured by two Turkiſh towers. The exagonal court behind it, is now known only by the magnificence of s ruins. Their walls were adorned with Corinthian pilaſters and ſta-ues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the ſame taſte and randeur. The great temple to which this leads, is now ſo ruined, hat it is known only by an entablature, ſupported by nine lofty co-umns, each conſiſting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins, ithout cement. Some of thoſe pins are a foot long, and a foot in dia-eter, and the ſordid Turks are daily at work to deſtroy the columns, or the ſake of the iron. A ſmall temple is ſtill ſtanding, with a pe-eſtal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where chly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expreſſing the heads of ods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the antient mythology. To e weſt of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corin-hian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkiſh moſques and houſes. he other parts of this antient city are proportionably beautiful and ſtupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of thoſe mmenſe buildings. The inhabitants of Aſia aſcribe them to Solomon, ut ſome make them ſo modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Per-aps they are of different æras, and though that prince, and his ſuc-eſſors, may have rebuilt ſome part of them, yet the boldneſs of their architecture,

architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the ſtupendous exte tion of the whole, ſeem to fix their foundation to a period before th Chriſtian æra, but without mounting to the times of the Jews, or the Ph nicians, who probably knew little of the Greek ſtile, in building and orna menting. Balbec is at preſent a little city, encompaſſed with a wall. Th inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, live in or near the circul temple, in houſes built out of the antient ruins. A free-ſtone quarr in the neighbourhood, furniſhed the ſtones for the body of the temple and one of the ſtones, not quite detached from the bottom of th quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, an reduced to our meaſure is 1135 tons. A coarſe white marble quarr at a greater diſtance, furniſhed the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or as it was called by the antients, Tadmor in the Deſar is ſituated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, about 33 deg. N. lat. an 200 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Aleppo. It is approached through a na row plain lined as it were with the remains of antiquity, and opening a at once, the eye is preſented with the moſt ſtriking objects that are t be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins, but th acceſs to it is through a vaſt number of beautiful Corinthian colum of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be know by the plates of it, which have been drawn, and publiſhed by M Wood, who, with his friends, paid it a viſit ſome years ago, purpoſ to preſerve ſome remembrance of ſuch a curioſity. As thoſe drawin or copies from them are now common, we muſt refer the reader to them eſpecially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from th printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade exten ing 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mauſoleum, temples, fr porticos, periſtyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of the in the higheſt ſtile, and finiſhed with the moſt beautiful materials, appe on all hands, but ſo diſperſed and disjointed, that it is impoſſible fro them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Thoſe ſtriking ru are contraſted by the miſerable huts of the wild Arabs, who reſide in near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that ſo ſuper a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt tracts of barren uninhabitable ſands. Nothing however is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; th it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world, an that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the weſtern nation for the merchandizes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent al tered ſituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural cauſe which have turned the moſt fertile tracts into barren deſarts. The Aſiatic think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon, and i this they receive ſome countenance from ſacred hiſtory. In profane hiſto it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony, and its moſt ſu perb buildings, are thought to be of the lower empire, about the tim of Gallienus.

Odenathus, the laſt king of Palmyra, was highly careſſed by th emperor, and even declared Auguſtus. His widow Zenobia reigned i great glory for ſome time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, w her ſecretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, ſhe de clared war againſt the emperor Aurelian, who took her priſoner, l her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, a among

among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards deſtroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended large ſums out of Zenobia's treaſures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majeſtic ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it muſt be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inſcriptions reach above the chriſtian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itſelf is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Juſtinian made ſome efforts to reſtore it to its antient ſplendor, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its preſent wretched ſtate. It has been obſerved very juſtly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to thoſe of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile, than the boaſted antiquities ſhewn by the Greek and Armenian prieſts in or near Jeruſalem, which is well known to have been ſo often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no ſcene of our Saviour's life and ſufferings, can be aſcertained, and yet thoſe eccleſiaſtics ſubſiſt by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every ſpot mentioned in the Old and New Teſtament. They are, it is true, under ſevere contributions to the Turks, but the trade ſtill goes on though much diminiſhed in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, ſaid to be built by Helena, mother to Conſtantine the Great, is ſtill ſtanding, and of tolerable good architecture, but its different diviſions, and the diſpoſitions made round it, are chiefly calculated to ſupport the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches, built by the ſame lady, are found in Paleſtine; but the country is ſo altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the moſt deſpicable of any in Aſia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any veſtiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon.

Mecca and Medina are curioſities only through the ſuperſtition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houſes or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a ſorry appearance, though erected on the ſpot where the great prophet is ſaid to have been born. The ſame may be ſaid of the moſque at Medina, where that impoſture was buried; ſo that the vaſt ſums ſpent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in viſiting thoſe places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uſes. I ſhall not amuſe the reader with any accounts of the ſpot which is ſaid to have formed Paradiſe, and to have been ſituated between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are ſome tracts which undoubtedly deſerve that name. The different ruins, ſome of them inexpreſſibly magnificent, that are to be found in thoſe immenſe regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; ſo great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for theſe thouſand years paſt. It is indeed eaſy to pronounce whether the ſtile of their buildings are Greek, Roman, or Saracen, but all other information muſt come from their inſcriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Iſmir) contains many valuable antiquities, but it cannot be imagined that a learned man could devote his whole life to explain them. The ſame may be ſaid of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical obſervations. The ſeat of old Troy cannot be diſtinguiſhed by the ſmalleſt veſtige, and is known only by its lying oppoſite to the iſle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble built

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in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar, at Milaſſo in Caria, and a few ſtructures of the ſame kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are ſtill entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, have ſuffered very little from time or barbariſm, and ſome travellers think that they diſcern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Epheſus.

PROVINCES, CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS.

These are very numerous, and at the ſame time very inſignificant, becauſe they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their antient grandeur. Scanderoon ſtands upon the ſite of Alexandretta, but it is now almoſt depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preſerves a reſpectable rank among the cities of the Aſiatic Turkey. It is ſtill the capital of Syria, and is ſuperior in its buildings and conveniencies to moſt of the Turkiſh cities. Its houſes, as is uſual in the Eaſt, conſiſt of a large court, with a dead wall to the ſtreet, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the ſame in the middle. Aleppo, and its ſuburbs, are ſeven miles in compaſs, and contain 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Chriſtians, and 5000 are Jews. It is furniſhed with moſt of the conveniencies of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is ſupplied by an aqueduct, ſaid to have been erected by the empreſs Helena. Their gardens are pleaſant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and piſtachio trees, but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and tranſact their buſineſs in caravanſeras, or large ſquare buildings, containing their ware-houſes, lodging-rooms, and compting-houſes. This city abounds in neat, and ſome of them magnificent moſques, public bagnios, which are very refreſhing, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, covered ſtreets, with little ſhops, as in other parts of the Eaſt. Their coffee is excellent, and conſidered by the Turks as a high luxury, and their ſweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater ſplendor and ſafety than in any other city of the Turkiſh empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have conſuls, who are much reſpected, and appear abroad, the Engliſh eſpecially, with marks of diſtinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to ſleep in the open air, here and over all Arabia, and many other parts of the Eaſt; for which reaſon their houſes are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance thoſe nations had with aſtronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains ſome parts of the holy ſcripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkiſh cities.

Bagdat, built upon the Tygris, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was once the metropolis of the califate, under the Saracens, the moſt powerful monarchy on earth.

Bagdat retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is rudely fortified, but the conveniency of its ſituation renders it one of the ſeats of the Turkiſh government, and has ſtill a conſiderable trade, being annually viſited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and weſtern caravans.

Antient Aſſyria is now called the Turkiſh Curdiſtan, tho' part of it

ſubject to the Perſians. The capital is Curdiſtan; the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdiſtan is ſaid to be for the moſt part cut out of a mountain, and is the reſidence of a viceroy, or begerbeg. Orſa, formerly Edeſſa, is the capital of the fine province of Meſopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly ſupported by a manufacture of Turkey leather.

Georgia, or Gurgiſtan, though ſubject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Chriſtians, a brave, warlike race of men, and often at war with the Mahometans. Their capital, Teflis, is a handſome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000. The Georgians in general are by ſome travellers ſaid to be the handſomeſt people in the world; and ſome think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the ſmall-pox. They make no ſcruple of ſelling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many diſtinguiſhing liberties and privileges.

The antient cities of Damaſcus, Tyre, and Sidon, ſtill retain part of their former trade. Damaſcus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpreſſibly beautiful. It contains a fine moſque, which was formerly a chriſtian church. It ſtill is famous for its ſteel works, ſuch as ſword blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is ſaid to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants ſtill manufacture thoſe beautiful ſilks called Damaſks from their city, and carry on a conſiderable traffic in raw and worked ſilk; roſe-water, extracted from the famous damaſk roſes, fruits and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is ſtill beautiful, eſpecially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, which likewiſe lies within the antient Phenicia, has ſtill ſome trade, and a tolerable harbour. Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles diſtant from Sidon, ſo famous formerly for its rich dye, is now only inhabited by a few miſerable fiſhermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur.

Natolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lycia, Pamphylia, Piſidia, Lycoania, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, Amaſia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman hiſtory, are now, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, either forſaken, or a theatre of ruins. The ſites of antient cities are ſtill diſtinguiſhible, and ſo luxurious is nature in thoſe countries, that in many places ſhe triumphs over her forlorn condition. The ſelfiſh Turks cultivate no more land than maintain themſelves, and their gardens and ſummer-houſes fill up the circuit of their moſt flouriſhing cities. The moſt judicious travellers, upon an attentive ſurvey of thoſe countries, fully vindicate all that has been ſaid by ſacred and profane writers of their beauty, ſtrength, fertility, and population. Even Paleſtine and Idea, the moſt deſpicable at preſent of all thoſe countries, lies buried within the luxuries of its own ſoil. The Turks ſeem particularly fond of repreſenting it in the moſt dreadful colours, and have formed a thouſand falſehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by ſome among ourſelves, have impoſed upon weak Chriſtians *. Whether thoſe

* The late reverend Dr. Shaw, profeſſor of Greek at Oxford, who ſeems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the beſt philoſophy, to make the moſt juſt obſervations, ſays, that was the Holy Land well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts of Syria

countries could ever be reſtored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and po pulation, may be a queſtion with ſome; but I apprehend that it woul now be impoſſible (let the Turkiſh government be ever ſo beneficent to divert commerce (without which, all attempts of that kind muſt b feeble) from its European channels. There can, however, be no que tion, that a government leſs brutal and bigotted than that of the Turk might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people with themſelves. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and othe ſects of Chriſtians there, partake but too much of the Turkiſh ſtupidit Tho' they are not ſuffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on hors back, and are ſubjected to a thouſand indignities, and miſeries, a are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppreſſors, y ſo abject is their ſpirit, that they make no efforts for their own de verance, and they are contented under all their mortifications. If th are leſs indolent than their oppreſſors, it is becauſe they muſt otherwi ſtarve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, leſt ſhould be diſcovered to their tyrants, who would conſider it as their own

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe objects are little tended to in the Turkiſh dominions. The nature of their governme deſtroys that happy ſecurity which is the mother of arts, induſtry, a commerce; and ſuch is the debaſement of the human mind when bo down by tyranny and oppreſſion, that all the great advantages of co merce which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inha tants by their ſituation, are here totally neglected. The advantages Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all thoſe countries which carried on t commerce of the antient world, are overlooked. They command navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the ſou ern ocean, and preſents them with all the riches of the Indies. Wh ever looks on a map of Turkey, muſt admire the ſituation of th capital; upon a narrow ſtrait that ſeparates Europe from Aſia, and co municates on the ſouth with the Mediterranean ſea, thereby openi a paſſage to all the European nations as well as the coaſt of Afri The ſame ſtrait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, open paſſage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the in rior parts of Germany, Poland, and Ruſſia.

In this extenſive empire, where all the commodities neceſſary for t largeſt plan of induſtry and commerce are produced, the Turks co tent themſelves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and ſo The moſt valuable of their commodities, ſuch as ſilk, a variety of dru and dying ſtaffs, they generally export without giving them much ditional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of empire is extremely ſmall, and managed entirely by Jews and Ar nians. In their traffic with Europe the Turks are altogether paſſ The Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, reſort hither w

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Syria and Phœnicia, becauſe the ſoil is generally much richer, and, every thing co dered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenneſs, ſays he, of which ſome auth complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the country, but f the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſe and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare this country.

Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In "leſtine, ſays Mr. Wood, we have often ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, accompanied b "armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the ſeed." And, after all, whoever is uncertain whether he ſhall ever reap the harveſt.

ir commodities, and bring back thoſe of Turkey in the ſame bottoms. ey ſeldom attempt any diſtant voyages, and are poſſeſſed only of a coaſting veſſels on the Aſiatic Turkey; their chief royal navy lying the ſide of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of mmerce is perhaps the beſt ſecurity to their government. The ba- ce of power eſtabliſhed among the princes of Europe, and their louſies of one another, ſecures to the infidels the poſſeſſion of countries, ich in the hands of the Ruſſians, or any active ſtate, might endanger commerce of their neighbours, eſpecially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkiſh government is mmonly exhibited as a picture of all that is ſhocking and unnatural arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of Sir James Potter, o reſided at the Porte, in quality of ambaſſador from his Britannic jeſty, it appears that the rigours of that deſpotic government are iderably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this pire there is no hereditary ſucceſſion to property, the rights of indi- ua's may be rendered fixed and ſecure, by being annexed to the rch, which is done at an inconſiderable expence. Even Jews and riſtians may in this manner ſecure the enjoyments of their lands to the ſt poſterity; and ſo ſacred and inviolable has this law been held, t there is no inſtance of an attempt on the ſide of the prince to treſpaſs reverſe it. Neither does the obſervance of this inſtitution altogether nd on the ſuperſtition of the ſultan; he knows that any attempt violate it, would ſhake the foundations of his throne, which ſolely ſupported by the laws of religion. Were he to treſpaſs ſe laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceaſes to be the lawful ſo- eign. The ſame obſervation extends to all the rules laid down in the ran, which was deſigned by Mahomet, both as a political code, and a religious ſyſtem. The laws there enacted, having all the force of gious prejudices to ſupport them, are inviolable; and by them the l rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on book, which explain the law where it is obſcure, or extend and mplear what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal dity with the firſt inſtitution of the prophet; and no member of the ety, however powerful, can tranſgreſs them without cenſure, or vio- them without puniſhment.

The Aſiatic Turks, or rather ſubjects of the Turkiſh empire, who d their poſſeſſions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their ing in the field with a particular number of men, think themſelves, le they perform that agreement, almoſt independent of his ma- , who ſeldom calls for the head or the eſtate of a ſubject, who is an immediate ſervant of the court. The moſt unhappy ſubjects of Turkiſh government, are thoſe who approach the higheſt dignities of , and whoſe fortunes are conſtantly expoſed to ſudden alterations, depend on the breath of their maſter. There is a gradation of t officers in Turkey, of whom the viſir, or prime miniſter; the yia, ſecond in power to the viſir; the reis effendi, or ſecretary of , are the moſt conſiderable. Theſe, as well as the mufti, or high ſt, the baſhaws, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and y others, are commonly raiſed by their application and aſſiduity, the meaneſt ſtations in life, and are often the children of Tartar, Chriſtian ſlaves taken in war. Tutored in the ſchool of adverſity, arriving at pre-eminence through a thouſand difficulties and dangers,

theſe men are generally as diſtinguiſhed for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They poſſeſs all the diſſimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in a humble rank, and they have a farther reaſon for plundering the people, becauſe they are uncertain how long they may poſſeſs the dignities to which they are arrived. The adminiſtration of juſtice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded on very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of the empire muſt be immenſe. The revenues ariſe from the cuſtoms, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Chriſtians, and other ſubjects not of the Mahometan religion. Another branch of the revenue ariſes from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All theſe, however, are trifling, when compared with the vaſt ſums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of ſtate, under the name of preſents. Theſe harpies, to indemnify themſelves, as we have already obſerved, exerciſe every ſpecies of oppreſſion that their avarice can ſuggeſt, till becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries they are ſent to govern, their riches frequently give riſe to a pretended ſuſpicion of diſloyalty or miſconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is ſeldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accuſers; but, without giving him the leaſt opportunity of making a defence, an officer is diſpatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy baſſa receives it with the higheſt reſpect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, ſays, *the will of God and the emperor be done*, or ſome ſuch expreſſion, teſtifying his entire reſignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the ſilken cord, which the officer has ready in his boſom, and having tied it about his own neck, and ſaid a ſhort prayer, the officer's ſervants throw him on the floor, and drawing the cord ſtrait, ſoon diſpatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkiſh empire is of two ſorts; the firſt have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the others paid out of the treaſury. Thoſe that have certain lands, amount to about 268,000 troopers, effective men. Beſides theſe, there are alſo certain auxiliary forces raiſed by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and Georgians, who are commanded by their reſpective princes. The Kan of the Crim Tartary is obliged to furniſh 100,000 men, and to ſerve in perſon, when the grand ſignior takes the field. In every war, beſides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of ſucceeding the officers. Theſe adventurers do not only promiſe themſelves an eſtate if they ſurvive, but are taught, that if they die in a war againſt the Chriſtians, they ſhall go immediately to paradiſe. The forces, which receive their pay from the treaſury, are called the Spahis, or horſe-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janizaries, or foot-guards, who are eſteemed the beſt ſoldiers in the Turkiſh armies, and on them they principally depend in an engagement. Theſe amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered at and near Conſtantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded ſo far ſometimes as to depoſe the ſultan. They are educated in the ſeraglio, and trained up to the exerciſe of arms from their

fancy; and there are not leſs than an 100,000 foot ſoldiers, ſcattered over every province of the empire, who procure themſelves to be regiſtered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janizaries, which are very great, being ſubject to no juriſdiction, but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are ſwelled with all the pomp of eaſtern magnificence. He is ſtiled by his ſubjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, diſpoſer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand ſignior's arms are, vert, a creſcent argent, creſted with a turbant, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths, who are deſigned for the ſtate, the army, or the navy; but they are ſeldom preferred till they are about 40 years of age, and they riſe by their merit. They are generally the children of Chriſtian parents, either taken in war, purchaſed, or preſents from the viceroys or governors of diſtant provinces, the moſt beautiful, well made, and ſprightly children, that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the ſignior, before they are ſent to the colleges, or ſeminaries, where they are educated for employments, according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the ſeraglio, are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly ſent as preſents from the provinces, and the Greek iſlands, moſt of them the children of Chriſtian parents. On their admiſſion they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught muſic, dancing, and other accompliſhments, and furniſhed with the richeſt clothes and ornaments. Theſe ladies are ſcarce ever ſuffered to go abroad, except when the grand ſignior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are incloſed with lattices; and, when they go by land, they are put into cloſe chariots, and ſignals are made at certain diſtances, to give notice that none approach the roads, through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converſe by ſigns with great quickneſs, and ſome dwarfs who are exhibited for the diverſion of his majeſty.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more ſouthern and fertile parts of Aſia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vaſt country, known to the antients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of theſe people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name ſignifies Wanderers, extended its conqueſts under various leaders, and during ſeveral centuries, from the ſhore of the Caſpian, to the ſtraits of the Dardanelles. Being long reſident, in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time, as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief reſidence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucaſus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the ſultans of Perſia, they ſeized that kingdom, and ſpread their ravages all over the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometaniſm, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were ſometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declenſion of the caliſate

or empire of the Saracens, they made themſelves maſters of Paleſtine, and the viſiting the Holy City of Jeruſalem, being then part of the Chriſtian exerciſes, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens the Turks laid the European pilgrims under ſuch heavy contributions and exerciſed ſuch horrid cruelties upon the Chriſtian inhabitants of the country, as gave riſe to the famous Cruſades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progreſs of the Chriſtians than the Turks; and though after oceans of blood were ſpilt, a Chriſtian kingdom was erected at Jeruſalem under Godfrey of Bouillon, neither he nor his ſucceſſors were poſſeſſed of any real power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1347, had extended their dominions on every ſide, and poſſeſſed themſelves under Othman, of ſome of the fineſt provinces in Aſia of Nice, and Pruſa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and as it were, firſt embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader, the appellation of Turks, as it ſignifies in the original, wanderers or baniſhed men, being conſidered by them as a term of reproach. Othman was ſucceeded by a race of the moſt warlike princes that are mentioned in hiſtory. About the year 1357 they paſſed the Helleſpont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath ſettled the ſeat of his empire at Adrianople. Such were their conqueſts, that Bajazet I. after defeating the Greek emperor Sigiſmund, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, in hopes of ſubjecting all the Greek empire. His greatneſs and inſolence provoked Tamerlane, who was juſt then returned from his eaſtern conqueſts, to declare war againſt him. A deciſive battle was fought between thoſe rival conquerors, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, in which Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himſelf taken priſoner. The ſucceſſors of Tamerlane by declaring war againſt one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians and Hungarians, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long ſiege, Mahomet II. took Conſtantinople in 1453. Thus after an exiſtence of ten centuries, from its firſt commencement under Conſtantine the Great, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long foreſeen, and was owing to many cauſes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themſelves, their courts and families; the diſlike their ſubjects had to the popes, and the weſtern church, one of their patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romiſh legate, "that he would rather ſee a turban, than the pope's "tiara, upon the great altar of Conſtantinople." But as the Turks when they extended their conqueſts, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to ſubjection, the remains of the antient Greeks ſtill exiſt, as we have already obſerved, particularly in Conſtantinople, and the neighbouring iſlands, where, though under grievous oppreſſions, they profeſs Chriſtianity under their own patriarchs. It is ſaid that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkiſh government, ſtill preſerves ſomewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors.

The conqueſt of Conſtantinople was followed by the ſubmiſſion of all Greece, and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as a European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was ſucceeded by Bajazet II. who carried

on war againſt the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Perſians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harraſſed by family differences, and at laſt, by order of his ſecond ſon, Selim, he was poiſoned by a Jew phyſician.

Selim afterwards ordered his elder brother, Achmet, to be ſtrangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Perſians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Perſia, he turned his arms againſt Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damaſcus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was ſucceeded, in 1520, by his ſon, Soliman the Magnificent; who taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the chriſtian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that iſland to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Chriſtian powers, and generally ſucceſsful, both by ſea and land; but he miſcarried in an attempt he made to take the iſle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greateſt prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was ſucceeded, in 1566, by his ſon, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkiſh marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Chriſtians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkiſh power, had the blow been purſued by the Chriſtians, eſpecially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis, in Africa, from the Moors. He was ſucceeded, in 1575, by his ſon, Amurath III. who forced the Perſians to cede Tauris, Teſſis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewiſe took the important fortreſs of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was ſucceeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is diſtinguiſhed, by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be ſtrangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were ſuppoſed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. He was often unſucceſsful in his wars with the Chriſtians; and died of the plague in 1604. Though his ſucceſſor, Achmet, was beaten by the Perſians, yet he forced the Auſtrians to a treaty in 1606, and to conſent that he ſhould keep what he was poſſeſſed of in Hungary. Oſman, a prince of great ſpirit, but no more than ſixteen years of age, being unſucceſsful againſt the Poles, was put to death by the janiſaries, whoſe power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. ſucceeded in 1623, and took Bagdat from the Perſians. His brother Ibrahim, ſucceeded him in 1640; a worthleſs, inactive prince, and ſtrangled by the janiſaries in 1648. His ſucceſſor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well ſerved by his grand viſir, Cuperli. He took Candy from the Venetians, after it had been beſieged for 30 years. This conqueſt coſt the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is ſaid, 180,000. A bloody war ſucceeded between the imperialiſts and the Turks, in which the latter were ſo ſucceſsful, that they laid ſiege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raiſe it with great loſs, by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, and other Chriſtian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, ſhut up in priſon by his ſubjects, and ſucceeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unſucceſsful in their wars during this reign, and that of his brother and ſucceſſor, Achmet II. but Muſtapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in perſon, and after ſome briſk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialiſts and Turks, was concluded

in 1699. Soon after, Muſtapha was depoſed, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother, Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave ſhelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Ruſſians by a glorious peace concluded at Pruth. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Chriſtian powers. The ſcene of action was tranſlated to Hungary, where the imperial general, prince Eugene, gave ſo many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a diſgraceful peace, at Paſſarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Perſians, under Kouli Khan, ſucceeding, the populace demanded the heads of the viſir, the chief admiral, and the ſecretary, which were accordingly ſtruck off; but Achmet was depoſed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unſucceſsful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at laſt obliged to recognize that uſurper as ſophi of Perſia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialiſts and Ruſſians; againſt the former he was victorious, but the ſucceſſes of the latter, which threatened Conſtantinople itſelf, forced him to agree to a haſty treaty with the emperor, and after that to another with the Ruſſians, which was greatly to his diſadvantage. Mahomet died in 1754. He was ſucceeded by his brother, Oſman III. who died in 1757, and was ſucceeded by his brother, Muſtapha III. born in 1723, who is now reigning, and engaged in a hitherto unſucceſsful war with the Ruſſians.

The perſeverance of the Turks, ſupplied by their numerous Aſiatic armies, and their implicit ſubmiſſion to their officers, rather than any excellence in military diſcipline or courage in war, have been the great ſprings of thoſe ſucceſſes which render their empire at preſent ſo formidable. The extenſion, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in ſome meaſure owing to the military inſtitution of the janiſaries, a corps originally compoſed of the children of ſuch Chriſtian parents as could not pay their taxes. Theſe being collected together, were formed to the exerciſe of arms under the eyes of their officers in the Seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and ſo excellent was their diſcipline, that they were deemed to be invincible: and they ſtill conſtitute the flower of the Turkiſh armies. After all, we muſt conſider the political ſtate of Europe, and the jealouſies that ſubſiſt among its princes, as the ſureſt baſis of this empire, and the principal reaſon why the fineſt provinces in the world are ſuffered to remain in the poſſeſſion of theſe haughty infidels.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 4000	between	50 and 150 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 2400		30 and 72 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT would be deceiving the reader to deſire him to depend upon any accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and ſituation of thoſe vaſt regions. Even the empreſs of Ruſſia and her miniſtry are ignorant of her preciſe limits with the Chineſe, the Perſians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fulleſt extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, on the north; by the Pacific or Oriental Ocean, on the eaſt; by China, India, Perſia, and the Caſpian Sea, on the ſouth; and by Muſcovy, on the weſt.

Grand diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
North-eaſt diviſion	Kamſchatka Tartars	Kamſchatka
	Jakutſkoi Tartars	Jakutſkoi
South-eaſt diviſion	Bratſki — —	Bratſki
	Thibet and Mongul Tartars ——	Poion
		Kudak
North-weſt diviſion	Samoieda — —	Mangaſia
	Oſtiack — —	Kortſkoi
South-weſt diviſion	Circaſſian and Aſtracan Tartary — —	Terki
		Aſtracan
Middle diviſion	Siberia — —	Tobolſki
	Kalmuc and Uſbec Tartary — —	Bokharia
		Samarcand.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are thoſe of Caucaſus, in Circaſſia, and the mountains of Stolp, in the north.

SEAS.] Theſe are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, the ſea of Kamſchatka, and the Caſpian Sea.

RIVERS.] The rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a courſe of 2000 miles; the Obey, which divides Aſia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtis, Geneſa or Jenſka; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Ruſſian and Chineſe empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this country is very different, by reaſon of its vaſt extent from north to ſouth; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the ſouthern being in the ſame latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and Ruſſian Lapland are moſt uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with ſnow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where encumbered with unwholeſome marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneſſes. Though Siberia is as it were another name for a country of horror, yet we are told that the air of the ſouthern parts is tolerably mild, the ſoil furniſhed with good water, and cultivated with ſome ſucceſs. The beſt accounts we have of its interior appearance, is from the ingenious French gentlemen who were ſent thither to make aſtronomical obſervations; they all agree in repreſenting it as a diſmal region, and almoſt uninhabited. Aſtracan, and the ſouthern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than induſtry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almoſt all the kinds known in Europe, eſpecially grapes, which are reckoned the largeſt and fineſt in the world. Their ſummers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is pettered and the ſoil ſometimes ruined by incredible quantities of locuſts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Ruſſian ambaſſador to China, repreſents ſome parts of Tartary as deſirable and fertile countries, the graſs growing ſpontaneouſly to an amazing height.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is ſaid that Siberia contains mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, jaſper, lapis lazuli, and loadſtones; a ſort of large teeth found here, creates ſome diſputes among the naturaliſts, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimſical and curious when poliſhed with art and ſkill.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other

other land and amphibious animals that are common in the north parts of Europe. Their horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and very hardy as they run wild till they are five or ſix years old, they are generally headſtrong. Near Aſtracan there is a bird called by the Ruſſians baba of a grey colour, and ſomething larger than a ſwan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of the river, and on ſeeing a ſhoal or fry of ſmall fiſhes, ſpreads his wings and drives them to a ſhallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going aſhore, eats them or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } We can form no probable gueſs as to the number of inhabitants in Tartary, but from many circumſtances we may conclude that they are not proportioned to the extent of their country. They are in general ſtrong made, ſtout men; their faces broad, their noſes flattiſh, their eyes ſmall and black, but very quick; their beards are ſcarcely viſible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots. The beauty of the Circaſſian women is a kind of ſtaple commodity in that country; for parents there make no ſcruple of ſelling their daughters to recruit the ſeraglios of the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They are purchaſed, when young, by merchants, and taught ſuch accompliſhments as ſuit their capacities, to render them more valuable againſt the day of ſale. The Tartars are in general a wandering ſort of people; in their peregrinations they ſet out in the ſpring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all its graſs and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Ruſſians, Perſians, or Turks in exchange for cattle; with this they purchaſe cloth, ſilks, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except thoſe who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greateſt ſlavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horſes. If they are angry with a perſon, they wiſh he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Ruſſian. Among themſelves they are very hoſpitable, and wonderfully ſo to the ſtrangers and travellers who confidently put themſelves under their protection. They are naturally of an eaſy chearful temper, always diſpoſed to laughter, and ſeldom depreſſed by care or melancholy. There is a ſtrong reſemblance between the northern Tartars and ſome nations of Canada in North America, particularly when any of their people are infirm through great age or ſeized with diſtempers reckoned incurable, they make a ſmall hut for the patient near ſome river, in which they leave him with ſome proviſions, and ſeldom or never return to viſit him. On ſuch occaſions they ſay they do their parents a good office, in ſending them to a better world. Notwithſtanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, eſpecially towards the ſouth, are tractable, humane, and are ſuſceptible of pious and virtuous ſentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their ſubmiſſion to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has diſtinguiſhed them in all ages. Hiſtory tells us that Darius, king of Perſia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius ſent an ambaſſador to demand where it was they propoſed to conclude their

their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for anſwer, with a ſpirit ſo peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities nor cultivated fields, for the defence of which they ſhould give him battle, but when once he was come to the place of their fathers monuments, he ſhould then underſtand in what manner the Scythians uſed to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy; they ſeldom appear on foot. They are dextrous in ſhooting at a mark, inſomuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will cleft a pole with an arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance. The dreſs of the men is very ſimple and fit for action; it generally conſiſts of a ſhort jacket, with narrow ſleeves made of deers ſkin, having the fur outward; trowſers and boſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half ſunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the ſmoak, and benches round the fire to ſit or lie upon. This ſeems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eaſtward, to the Japaneſe ocean. In the extreme northern regions, during the winter, every family burrows itſelf as it were under ground; and we are told, that ſo ſociable are they in their diſpoſitions, that they make ſubterraneous communications with each other, ſo that they may be ſaid to live in an inviſible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horſe-fleſh, eſpecially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabins extremely nauſeous. Though horſe-fleſh be preferred raw by ſome northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been ſmoaked and dried. The Tartars purchaſe their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or ſlave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes, the wife's ſon is always preferred to the ſucceſſion. After a wife is turned of 40, ſhe is employed in menial duties as another ſervant, and as ſuch muſt attend the young wives who ſucceed to their places; nor is it uncommon in ſome of the more barbarous tribes for a father to marry his own daughter.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars ſomewhat reſembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours, for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the popiſh religions. Some of them are the groſſeſt idolators, and worſhip little rude images dreſſed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free when matters do not go according to their own mind. The religion and government of the kingdom of Tibet, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, form the moſt extraordinary article that is to be found in the hiſtory of mankind. The Tibettians are governed by a living, eating, and drinking god, whom they believe to be omnipotent, and whom they call the Grand Lama, or Dalay Lama. He reſides in a pagoda or temple, upon the mountain Potali, in a croſs-legged poſture, but without ſpeaking or moving, otherwiſe than by ſometimes lifting his hand in approbation of a favourite worſhipper. Not only the Tibettines, but the neighbouring princes and people flock in incredible numbers, with rich preſents, to pay him their adorations; and he generally appears to be a healthy, ruddy-faced young man, about 27 years of age. This being appoints deputies under him, the chief of whom is called the Tipa, who takes care of all the

the temporal affairs of the kingdom, and has a number of subſtitute lamas. Theſe are properly the king and the governors of Tibet, both civil and military; it being below the dignity of the grand lama to ſuperintend any temporal concerns.

As to the grand lama, he is himſelf the moſt miſerable wretch in the empire. He is purchaſed, when young, from a healthy peaſant, and privately brought up by the lamas to the buſineſs of his function, which is to move by clock-work, and to be carried in ſtate to the place of his impriſonment, where he remains till next day, when the farce of his enthronement is repeated. When he falls ill, or becomes too old to act his part, he is diſpatched by his miniſters, who produce another, as like him as they can find in his room; and when any alteration is obſerved, they always give ſatisfactory reaſons why the dalai lama has changed his appearance. He is never ſuffered to touch any of the fine fruits or viands that are brought to his ſhrine, all which are devoured by his miniſters, who take care to diet him in his priſon. Such are the general outlines of this pretended theocracy, in which all travellers are agreed, however they may differ among themſelves as to modes and circumſtances.

LEARNING.] The reader may be ſurprized to find this article among a nation of Tartars, yet nothing is more certain than that under Zingis Khan, and Tamerlane, and their early deſcendants, Aſtracan and the neighbouring countries were the ſeats of learning and politeneſs, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever ſo ſplendid, falls ſhort of that of thoſe princes; and ſome remains of their taſte in architecture are ſtill extant, but in ſpots ſo deſolate, that they are almoſt inacceſſible. The cultivation of learning was the firſt care of the prince, and generally committed to the care of his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Perſian and Arabic tongues, and their hiſtories, many of which are ſtill extant in manuſcript, carry with them the ſtrongeſt marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] Theſe are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the above-mentioned great conquerors, and their ſucceſſors; they are, however, but little known to Europeans, though many of them are ſaid to have been diſcovered by the wandering Tartars in the internal parts of the country. Some gold and ſilver coins of the ſame princes have likewiſe been found, with ſeveral manuſcripts neatly written, which have been carried to Peterſburg. In 1720, ſays Mr. Voltaire, in his Hiſtory of Peter the Great, there was found in Calmuc Tartary, a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, ſome urns, lamps, and earrings, an equeſtrian ſtatue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women ſeated on thrones, and a roll of manuſcripts, which was ſent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Tibet.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of theſe we know little but the names, and that they are no better than fixed herds. They may be ſaid to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence againſt an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding diviſions of this country, merit notice. Tobolſki and Aſtracan are conſiderable cities, the firſt containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns have lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obe-

ſent to the Ruſſian government. But I apprehend it will require a conſiderable time before any fixed plan of government can be formed in this country.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the hiſtory of Tartary, their chief traffic conſiſting in cattle, ſkins, beavers, rhubarb, muſk, and fiſh. The Aſtracans, notwithſtanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a conſiderable traffic into Perſia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and ſome European manufactures.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furniſhed thoſe amazing numbers who, under various names, deſtroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and thoſe fine provinces, where learning and the arts reſided, are now ſcenes of horror and barbarity. This muſt have been owing to the dreadful maſſacres made among the nations by the two abovementioned conquerors and their deſcendants; for nothing is more common in their hiſtories than their putting to the ſword three or four hundred thouſand people in a few days.

The country of Uſbec Tartary was once the ſeat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite reſidence of Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the ſpoils of India and the eaſtern world. It is ſo difficult to diſcover any remains of magnificence here, that ſome authors have abſurdly queſtioned the veracity of the hiſtorians of theſe great conquerors, though it be better eſtabliſhed than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The ſame may be ſaid of Tamerlane, whoſe memory has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan, and whoſe deſcent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indoſtan himſelf. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the antients by the name of Bucharia, and it is ſituated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles diſtant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

The preſent inhabitants of this immenſe common compoſe innumerable tribes, who range at pleaſure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by ſeparate Khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power, over ſtrangers as well as natives, and who can bring into the field from 20 to 100,000 horſemen. Their chief reſidence is a kind of military ſtation, which is moved and ſhifted according to the chance of war and other occaſions. They are bounded on every ſide by the Ruſſian, the Chineſe, the Mogul, the Perſian, or the Turkiſh empires; each of whom are puſhing on their conqueſts in this extenſive, and in ſome places fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgement of their dependency, upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendſhip of theſe barbarians is of the utmoſt conſequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency, and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chineſe, as we ſhall mention in our account of that empire.

The method of carrying on war, by waſting the country, is very antient among the Tartars, and practiſed by all of them from the Danube eaſtward. This circumſtance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops,

troops, who muſt thereby be deprived of all ſubſiſtence; while the Tartars, having always many ſpare horſes to kill and eat, are at no loſs for proviſions.

The Empire of CHINA.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1440	between	20 and 42 north latitude.
Breadth 1260		98 and 123 eaſt longitude.

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by the Chineſe Tartary, on the north; by the Pacific ocean, which divides it from North America, on the eaſt; by the Chineſian ſea, ſouth; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries of Tibet and Ruſſia, on the weſt.

Diviſions.] The great diviſion of this empire, according to the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory, is into fifteen provinces (excluſive of that of Lyau-tong, which is ſituate without the great wall, though under the ſame dominion); each of which might, for their largeneſs, fertility, populouſneſs, and opulence, paſs for ſo many diſtinct kingdoms.

But it is neceſſary to inform the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jeſuits, and other religious ſent thither by the pope, but whoſe miſſions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of thoſe fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are juſtly to be ſuſpected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing, only by magnifying their own labours and ſucceſſes, as well as the importance of the Chineſe empire.

Name.] It is probably owing to a Chineſe word, ſignifying Middle, from a notion the natives had that their country lay in the middle of the world.

Mountains.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

Rivers and water.] The chief are the Yamour, and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe Tartary; the Crocceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in ſome places boiled to make it fit for uſe.

Bays.] The chief are thoſe of Nanking and Canton.

Canals.] Theſe are ſufficient to entitle the antient Chineſe to the character of being the wiſeſt and moſt induſtrious people in the world. The commodiouſneſs and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn ſtone on the ſides, and they are ſo deep, that they carry large veſſels, and ſometimes they extend above 1000 miles in length. Thoſe veſſels are fitted up for all the conveniencies of life, and it has been thought by ſome that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges of an amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſels ſometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perſeverance for the ſafety of the paſſengers

ers in caſe a canal is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from e mountains. Thoſe canals, and the variety that is ſeen upon their orders, renders China the moſt delightful to the eye of any country in e world, as well as fertile, in places that are not ſo by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the induſtry of the Chineſe, that they are not encumbered with foreſts or wood, though no country is better fitted for roducing timber of all kinds. They ſuffer, however, none to grow ut for ornament and uſe, or on the ſides of mountains, from whence the ees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according o the ſituation of the places. Towards the north it is ſharp, in the iddle mild, and in the ſouth hot. The ſoil is either by nature or art ruitful of every thing that can miniſter to the neceſſities, conveniencies, luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from hich the bulk of the inhabitants are cloathed and fed, is ingenious lmoſt beyond deſcription. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, ither ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, re to be found in China, and ſome are peculiar to itſelf; but even a atalogue of them would form a little volume. Some, however, muſt be entioned.

The tallow tree has a ſhort trunk, a ſmooth bark, crooked branches, d leaves, ſhaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common herry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, nd when manufactured with oil, ſerve the natives as candles, but they nell ſtrong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees, peculiar to hina, are ſome which yield a kind of flour; ſome partake of the nature f pepper. The gum of ſome are poiſonous, but afford the fineſt varniſh the world. After all that can be ſaid of thoſe, and many other beauful and uſeful trees, the Chineſe, notwithſtanding their induſtry, are ſo edded to their antient cuſtoms, that they are very little, if at all, eliorated by cultivation. The ſame may be ſaid of their richeſt fruits, hich, in general, are far from being ſo delicious as thoſe of Europe, nd indeed of America. This is owing to the Chineſe never practiſing rafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental ardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw-ſilk, which ſo uch abounds in China, and above all, the tea plant or ſhrub. It is lanted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriancy. Notwithſtanding ur long intercourſe with China, writers are ſtill divided about the difrent ſpecies and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the reen and bohea grows on the ſame ſhrub, but that the latter admits of me kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, ongo, ſinglo, and the like, are occaſioned probably by the nature of the ils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this lant ſeems to be very ſimple, and it is certain, that ſome kinds are of much higher and delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the neſt, which is called the Flower of the tea, is imported over land to uſſia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human ody. The greateſt is between the bohea and the green.

I am apt to think that the Portugueze had the uſe of tea long before e Engliſh, and that it was introduced among the latter, before the reſtoation, as mention of it is made in the firſt act of parliament, that ſettled

the exciſe on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Liſbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the uſe of it common at his court. The ginſeng ſo famous among the Chineſe, as the univerſal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is diſcovered in the Britiſh America. When brought to Europe, it is little diſtinguiſhed for its healing qualities, and this inſtance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginſeng, however, is a native of the Chineſe Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe naturaliſts) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itſelf, but we know of no extraordinary quality it poſſeſſes. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chineſe government is that of not introducing a ſuperabundancy of gold and ſilver, for fear of hurting induſtry. Their gold mines, therefore, are but ſlightly worked, and the currency of that metal is ſupplied by the grains the people pick up in the ſand of rivers and mountains. The ſilver ſpecie is furniſhed from the mines of Honan.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] The number of Chineſe, by the beſt accounts, does not fall ſhort of fifty millions; a number diſproportioned to what we are told of the vaſt population of particular cities and provinces. Moſt of thoſe accounts are exaggerated, and perſons, who viſit China without any view of becoming authors, are greatly diſappointed in their mighty expectations. The Chineſe, in their perſons, are middle-ſized, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, their noſes rather ſhort. The Chineſe have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces, by the roots, with tweezers, leaving a few ſtraggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexions towards the north is fair, towards the ſouth ſwarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handſomer. Men of quality, and learning, who are not much expoſed to the ſun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to ſhew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump, roſy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The ſmallneſs of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no ſwathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accompliſhment, ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the antient Chineſe, to palliate their jealouſy.

To enter into all the ſtarch ridiculous formalities of the Chineſe, eſpecially their men of quality, when paying or receiving viſits, would give my reader little information, and leſs amuſement, and very probably come too late, as the manners of the Chineſe, ſince they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that the legiſlators of China, looking upon ſubmiſſion and ſubordination as the corner-ſtones of all ſociety, deviſed thoſe outward marks of reſpect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the teſt of duty and reſpect from inferiors to ſuperiors, and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility, was void of good ſenſe.

By the lateſt and beſt accounts, the Chineſe in general are the moſt diſhoneſt

oneſt, low, thieving ſet in the world, and they employ their natural ickneſs only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, ecially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great eaſe, particuly the Engliſh, but they obſerve that none but a Chineſe can cheat a ineſe. They are fond of law diſputes beyond any people in the world. eir hypocriſy is without bounds, and the men of property among m, practiſe the moſt avowed bribery, and the loweſt meanneſſes to ob- preferment.

DRESS.] This varies according to the degrees of men among them. e men wear caps on their heads of the faſhion of a bell, thoſe of lity are ornamented with jewels. The reſt of their dreſs is eaſy and ſe, conſiſting of a veſt and a ſaſh, a coat or gown thrown over them, boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards ſouth wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn in a net, and ſometimes it is diſhevelled. Their dreſs differs but le from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very e open ſleeves. The dreſs, both of men and women, varies how- r according to the temperature of the climate.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never ſee each other in China till the bar- n is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties perfect children. Next to being barren, the greateſt ſcandal is to g females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens ave three or four girls, ſucceſſively, ſhe will expoſe or ſtrangle them, ich is the principal reaſon of ſo many children being found in the ets and highways.

FUNERALS.] People of note cauſe their coffins to be made, and their bs to be built in their life-time. No perſons are buried within the ls of a city, nor is a dead corpſe ſuffered to be brought into a town, perſon died in the country. Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a le, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and t grandfather; before which they frequently burn incenſe, and pro- te themſelves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the t grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chineſe language conſiſts of a very few words, or er ſyllables, which admit of ſo many variations, and ſo much modi- by ſounds and action, that it is generally thought no ſtranger can attain ſo as to ſpeak it.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chineſe is peculiar to mſelves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, ular in architecture, or natural in painting, and yet in their gardening, planning their grounds, they hit upon the true ſublime and beautiful. e learning of the Chineſe has been diſplayed in ſeveral ſpecimens pub- ed by Du Halde, as well as of poetry, but they contain no more than t of maxims and precepts, accommodated to public and private life, out any thing argumentative or deſcriptive. They perform all the rations of arithmetic with prodigious quickneſs, but differently from Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of hematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no appa- s for aſtronomical obſervations; and metaphyſical learning, if it ex- among them, was only known to their philoſophers; but even the introduced by the Jeſuits, were of very ſhort duration among them, laſted very little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was contem- ry with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they ever will be re- . It has been generally ſaid, that they underſtood printing before

the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block printing, for fuſile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventio The Chineſe, however, had almanacs, which were ſtamped from pl or blocks, many hundred years before printing was diſcovered in Euro The invention of gunpowder is juſtly claimed by the Chineſe, who m uſe of it againſt Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They ſeem to have kno nothing of ſmall fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their induſtry in their manuf tures of ſtuffs, porcelane, japanning, and the like ſedentary trades, amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in mak canals, levelling mountains, raiſing gardens, and navigating their ju and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curioſities pre themſelves in China, that have not been comprehended under preced articles. Some volcanos, rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Lineſung ſaid ſometimes to make ſo furious a diſcharge of fire and aſhes, as to caſion a tempeſt in the air, and ſome of their lakes are ſaid to pet fiſhes when put into them. The artificial curioſities of China are pendous. The great wall, ſeparating China from Tartary, to pre the incurſions of the Tartars, is ſuppoſed to extend 1500 miles. carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches from the province Xenſi to the Kang ſea, between the provinces of Pekin and Lænotum. is in moſt places built of brick and mortar, which is ſo well temper that though it has ſtood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed. The ginning of this wall is a large bulwark of ſtone raiſed in the ſea, in province of Patcheli, to the eaſt of Pekin, and almoſt in the ſame l tude; it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, much wider, being terraſſed and caſed with bricks, and is from 20 to feet high. P. Regis, and the other gentleman, who took a map of th provinces, often ſtretched a line on the top, to meaſure the baſis of angles, and to take diſtant points with an inſtrument. They alw found it paved wide enough for five or ſix horſemen to travel abreaſt w eaſe. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and ri that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains preſent on their tops, temples, monaſteri and other edifices, fabricated by hands. Some part, however, of w we are told concerning the cavities in theſe mountains, ſeems to be fa lous. The Chineſe bridges cannot be ſufficiently admired. They built ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly chained together, yet ſo as to parted, and to let the veſſels paſs that ſail up and down the river. So of them run from mountain to mountain, and conſiſt only of one arc that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, tho' a ſin arch, and joins two mountains; and ſome in the interior parts of empire, are ſaid to be ſtill more ſtupendous. The triumphal arches this country form the next ſpecies of artificial curioſities. Though th are not built in the Greek or Roman ſtile of architecture, yet they are perb and beautiful, and erected to the memories of their great men, w vaſt labour and expence. They are ſaid in the whole to be 1100, of which are particularly magnificent. Their ſepulchral monum make likewiſe a great figure. Their towers, the models of which now ſo common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vaſt emb liſhments to the face of their country. They ſeem to be conſtructed b regular order, and all of them are finiſhed with exquiſite carvings gilding

ildings, and other ornaments; that at Nankin, which is 200 feet high, d 40 in diameter, is the moſt admired. It is called the Porcelaine Tower, ecauſe it is lined with Chineſe tiles. Their temples are chiefly remark-le for the diſagreeable taſte in which they are built, for their capaciouſ-ſs, their whimſical ornaments, and the uglineſs of the idols they contain. he Chineſe are remarkably fond of bells, which gave name to one of eir principal feſtivals. A bell of Pekin weighs 120,000 pound, but its und is ſaid to be diſagreeable. The laſt curioſity I ſhall mention, is eir fire-works, which in China exceed thoſe of all other nations. In ort, every province in China is a ſcene of curioſities. Their buildings, cepting as mentioned, their pagodas, being confined to no order, and ſceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleaſing gance not void of magnificence, that is agreeable to the eye, and e imagination, and preſents a diverſity of objects not to be found in uropean architecture.

[CHIEF CITIES.] Little can be ſaid of theſe more than that ſome of em are immenſe, and there is great reaſon to believe their population is ch exaggerated. The empire is ſaid to contain 4400 walled cities; e chief of which are Pekin, Nankin and Canton. The former is the idence of the preſent royal family, and is moderately reckoned to ntain two million of inhabitants, but Nankin is ſaid to exceed it both extent and population. The walls of Pekin are 50 cubits high, and e defended by towers, at a bow-ſhot diſtance from each other, with oubts at every gate. It is divided into two parts like London and eſtminſter, the Chineſe and the Tartar. The imperial palace, which no other than an amazing aſſemblage of neat beautiful buildings, but thout order or regularity, ſtands in the latter.

[TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is ſo happily ſituated, and oduces ſuch a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be ſaid be the native land of induſtry; but it is an induſtry without taſte or gance, though carried on with vaſt art and neatneſs. They make paper the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not mparable for records, or printing, to the European. Their ink, for e uſe of drawing, is well known in England, and is ſaid to be made of and lamp-black. I have already mentioned the antiquity of their inting, which they ſtill do by cutting their characters on blocks of od. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the me of China, was long a ſecret in Europe, and brought immenſe ſums that country. The antients knew and eſteemed it highly under the me of Porcelaine, but it was of a much better fabric than the modern. ough the Chineſe affect to keep that manufacture ſtill a ſecret, yet it is ll known that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth, d that ſeveral European countries far exceed the Chineſe in manufac-ring this commodity *. The Chineſe ſilks are generally plain and wered gawſes, and they are ſaid to have been originally fabricated in t country, where the art of rearing ſilk-worms was firſt diſcovered. ey manufacture ſilks likewiſe of a more durable kind, and their cotton, d other cloths, are famous for furniſhing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with

* The Engliſh in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as ears from the commiſſions which have been received of late from ſeveral princes of ope; and we hope that a manufacture ſo generally uſeful, will meet with encourage-nt from every true patriot among ourſelves.

whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and avarice of t Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But is certain, that since the discovery of the porcelaine manufactures, a the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branch the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This was a most instructi entertaining article, before the conquest of China by the Tartars; s though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chine they have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the antient discipline many respects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may ha contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chine government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the wo Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended a enforced in the most rigorous manner, but at the same time, the empe was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarines, or great o cers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes, and the degrees of su mission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior, we settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manne that to us seems highly ridiculous. This simple claim of obedience requi great address and knowledge of human nature, to render it effectual; a the Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been m of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneratio The mandarines had modes of speaking and writing, different from tho of other subjects, and the people were taught to believe that their prin partook of divinity, so that they were seldom seen, and more seldo approached.

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity, for an incredib number of years, yet it had a fundamental effect that often convulse and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was n paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chinese had passions li other men, and sometimes a weak or wicked administration, drove the into arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During those co motions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tarta to their assistance, and it was thus those barbarians, who had great sag city, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, a they availed themselves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empi

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese ha sumptuary laws, and regulations for the expences of all degrees of subject which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, and preventin the effects of ambition. By their institutions likewise the mandarin might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manne upon the errors of his government, and when he was a virtuous princ this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. N country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharg of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China, but they a often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. Th emperor is stiled *Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Gra Father of his People.*

RELIGION.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding Though the antient Chinese worshipped idols, and seemed to admit a particular providence, yet their philosophers and legislators were athei

r materialiſts, and indulged the people in the worſhip of ſenſible objects, aly to make them more ſubmiſſive to government. The Jeſuits long mpoſed upon the public of Europe on this head, and ſuffered their pro-elytes to worſhip Tien, pretending, that it was no other than the name f God, but a ſtrict ſcrutiny being made by the court of Rome, it was ound to ſignify univerſal matter. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chi-eſe legiſlators, introduced a moſt excellent ſyſtem of morals among the eople, and endeavoured to ſupply the belief of a future ſtate, by pre-cribing to them the worſhip of inferior deities. Their morality approxi-ates to that of Chriſtianity, but as we know little of their religion, but rough the Jeſuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous inſtances, hich they tell us of the conformity of the Chineſe with the Chriſtian eligion. Thoſe fathers, it muſt be owned, were men of great abilities, d made a wonderful progreſs above a century ago in their converſions; ut they miſtook the true character of the emperor who was their patron, r he no ſooner found that they were in fact aſpiring to the civil direction f the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with e ground, and prohibited the exerciſe of their religion; ſince which me Chriſtianity has made no figure in China.

REVENUES.] Theſe are ſaid by ſome, to amount to twenty millions erling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at l abound in China. The taxes collected for the uſe of the government rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and very poſſibly mount to that ſum.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is, at this time, a r more powerful empire, than it was before its conqueſt by the eaſtern artars in 1644. This is owing to the conſummate policy of Chun-tchi, e firſt Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary ſubjects conform themſelves to the Chineſe manners and policy, and the Chineſe wear the Tartar dreſs and arms. The two nations were thereby incor-orated. The Chineſe were appointed to all the civil offices of the mpire. The emperor made Pekin the ſeat of his government, and the artars quietly ſubmitted to a change of their country and condition hich was ſo much in their favour.

This ſecurity, however, of the Chineſe from the Tartars, takes from em all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to at empire. The only danger that threatens it at preſent, is the diſuſe f arms. The Chineſe land army is ſaid to conſiſt of five millions of en, but in theſe are comprehended all who are employed in the col-ction of the revenue, and the preſervation of the canals, the great roads, d the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. s to the marine force, it is compoſed chiefly of the junks, we have ready mentioned, and other ſmall ſhips, that trade coaſt-ways, or to the eighbouring countries, or to prevent ſudden deſcents.

HISTORY.] The Chineſe pretend as a nation to an antiquity beyond l meaſure of credibility, but though their pretenſions have been repeatedly nfuted by learned men, they certainly have evidences of a much higher tiquity, than any people on earth (the Jews perhaps excepted) n produce. Their exactneſs in aſtronomical obſervations, rude as they ere in that ſcience, before their commerce with the Europeans; their mmemorial uſe of printing; their peaceable patriarchal ſcheme of govern-ent, and ſeveral other incidental advantages contributed to this priority. ſucceſſion of excellent princes, and a duration of domeſtic tranquillity

united legiſlation with philoſophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whoſe hiſtory however is wrapped up in myſteries, their Li-Laokum, and above all their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the moſt dreadful effects, in proportion as its conſtitution was pacific, and they were attended with the moſt bloody exterminations in ſome provinces; ſo that though the Chineſe empire is hereditary, the imperial ſucceſſion was more than once broken into.

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chineſe, could ſubdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conqueſts they made there. The celebrated wall, proved but a feeble barrier againſt the arms of thoſe famous Tartars. After their invaſions were over, the Chineſe went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthleſs emperor Tſong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tſe, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himſelf, as did moſt of his courtiers and women. Ou-ſan-quey, the Chineſe general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refuſed to recognize the uſurper, and made a peace with Tſongate, the Manchew prince, who drove the uſurper from the throne, and took poſſeſſion of it himſelf, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himſelf in his authority, and as has been already mentioned, wiſely incorporated his hereditary ſubjects with the Chineſe, ſo that in effect Manchew Tartary became an acquiſition to China. He was ſucceeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the jeſuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government.

About the year 1661, the Chineſe, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the iſland of Formoſa, which the latter had taken from the Portugueſe. Though the intercourſe between Europe and China has been greatly improved ſince that time, yet we know very little of the internal events of China, excepting thoſe that effect our trade, which is now at a low paſs in that country, owing to the vaſt diſtance and uncertainty of the voyage, the native chicanery of the Chineſe themſelves, and the Europeans having ſupplied themſelves either at home or from other countries with many of their commodities.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.] THIS vaſt country is ſituated between the 66th and 109th deg. of eaſt longitude, and between 1 and 40 of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the countries of Uſbec Tartary and Tibet; on the ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; on the eaſt, by China and the Chineſe ſea; and on the weſt, by Perſia and the Indian ſea.

DIVISIONS.] I ſhall divide, as others have done, India at large into three great parts; firſt, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Further Peninſula; ſecondly, the main land, or the Mogul empire; thirdly, the Peninſula within or on this ſide the Ganges: all of them vaſt populous and extended empires. But it is neceſſary, in order to ſave many repetitions, to premiſe an account of ſome particulars that are in common to thoſe numerous nations, which ſhall be extracted from

the moſt enlightened of our modern writers who have viſited the country in the ſervice of the Eaſt India company.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, RELIGION AND GOVERNMENT. Mr. Orme, an excellent and an authentic hiſtorian, comprehends the two latter diviſions under the title of Indoſtan. The Mahometans (ſays he) who are called Moors, of Indoſtan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about an hundred millions. Above half the empire is ſubject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their deſcent from the old princes of India, and exerciſe all rights of ſovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and obſerving the treaties by which their anceſtors recognized his ſuperiority. In other reſpects the government of Indoſtan is full of wiſe checks upon the overgrowing greatneſs of any ſubject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the adminiſtration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitleſs.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos, or, as others call them, Hindoos. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legiſlator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was ſome great and good genius, whoſe beneficence, like that of the pagan legiſlators, led his people and their poſterity to pay him divine honours. The bramins (for ſo the Gentoo prieſts are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and inſtitutions; and that though the original is loſt, they are ſtill poſſeſſed of a commentary upon it, called the Shaſtah, which is wrote in the Sanſcrit language, now a dead language, and known only to the bramins who ſtudy it. The foundation of Brumma's doctrine conſiſted in the belief of a ſupreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, ſome ſuperior, and ſome inferior to man: in the immortality of the ſoul, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, which is to conſiſt of a tranſmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-exiſtent ſtate. From this it appears more than probable that the Pythagorean metempſychoſis took its riſe in India.

The neceſſity of inculcating this ſublime, but otherwiſe complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourſe to ſenſible repreſentations of their Deity and his attributes; ſo that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worſhip of the moſt hideous figures, either delineated or carved; and the belief of an omnipotent Being is now almoſt loſt among the Gentoos.

Thoſe Indians are particularly diſtinguiſhed from the reſt of mankind by their diviſion into tribes, the four principal of which are the bramins, ſoldiers, labourers, and mechanics. Theſe are again ſubdivided into a multiplicity of inferior diſtinctions. The bramins have an intire power, which they uſe commonly to very bad purpoſes, over the minds of the people; though ſome of them are ſuperſtitious, moral, and innocent. They are all of them ſuch bigots, that excepting the Hallachores, who are the refuſe and outcaſts of the other tribes, and diſowned and deteſted by them all, Mr. Scrafton doubts (whatever the Roman catholics may pretend) whether there ever was an inſtance of any other of the Gentoos being converted by the miſſionaries. In ſhort, the bramins in general are a deſigning degenerate ſet of men; but Mr. Scrafton, who gives us that

picture of them, acknowledges that, amidſt all their errors, they agree in thoſe truths which form the harmony of the univerſe, that there is one *ſupreme God, and that he is beſt pleaſed by charity and good works.*

The ſoldiers are commonly called Rajah-poots, or perſons deſcended from rajahs, and reſide chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair complexioned than the people of the ſouthern provinces, who are quite black. Theſe rajah-poots are a robuſt, brave, faithful people, and enter into the ſervice of thoſe who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finiſhed, and they run off the field without any ſtain upon their reputation.

The labourers are the farmers and all who are concerned in the cultivation of lands.

The mechanics are merchants, bankers, traders of all kinds, and are divided into many ſubordinations.

Thoſe different tribes (ſays Mr. Scrafton) are forbid to intermarry, to cohabit, to eat with each other, or even to drink out of the ſame veſſel with one of another tribe; and every deviation in theſe points, ſubjects them to be rejected by their tribe, renders them for ever polluted, and they are thenceforward obliged to herd with the Hallachores. This diviſion is attended with infinite inconveniencies, for excepting the rajah-poots, no Gentoo thinks of defending himſelf in caſe of invaſions, which, when made from the ſea, have been generally ſucceſsful. The ſame diviſion, however, has, notwithſtanding all the convulſions of their government, and all their oppreſſions under the Mahometans, preſerved their manufactures among them, which, while the ſon can follow no other trade than that of his father, can never be loſt but by exterminating the people.

Different kinds of food are aſſigned to different tribes. The bramins touch nothing that has life; the ſoldiers are permitted to eat veniſon, mutton, and fiſh; the labourers and merchants live differently, according to their ſex and profeſſions, ſome of them being allowed to eat fiſh, but none of them animal food.

The practice of women burning themſelves, upon the death of their huſbands, is now ſaid to be diſuſed all over Indoſtan; and the Gentoos in general chuſe death by famine rather than pollute themſelves by eating a forbidden food. This picture of the Gentoos ſeems to be drawn before our wars with the French in that country; for if we are to believe ſome travellers, they begin now to relax in the practice of their religious duties. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniencies, as the Chineſe; and there ſcarcely is an inſtance of a robbery in all Indoſtan, though the diamond merchants travel without defenſive weapons.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos, are ſtupendous, but diſguſtful ſtone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the tuition of the bramins. If the bramins are maſters of any uncommon art or ſcience, they turn it to the purpoſes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that they know how to calculate eclipſes; and that judicial aſtrology is ſo prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head aſtrologer being always conſulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewiſe encourage thoſe ſuperſtitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo induſtry as belonging to themſelves. Though the Gentoos are entirely paſſive under all their oppreſſions, and by their ſtate of exiſtence, the practice of their religion, and the ſcantineſs of their food, have nothing of that reſentment in their nature that animates the reſt of mankind; yet they are ſuſceptible of avarice, and

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metimes bury their money, and rather than diſcover it put themſelves death by poiſon or otherwiſe. This practice, which it ſeems is not ncommon, accounts for the vaſt ſcarcity of ſilver that till of late pre-ailed in Indoſtan.

The reaſons abovementioned account likewiſe for their being free of all oſe paſſions, particularly that of love, and ſenſations that render the reſt f mankind either happy or miſerable. Their perpetual uſe of rice, their ief food, gives them but little nouriſhment; and their marrying early, e males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, eeps them low and feeble in their perſons. A man is in the decline of e at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on decay at eighteen: at enty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to onder at their being ſoon ſtrangers to all perſonal exertion and vigour of ind; and it is with them a frequent ſaying, that it is better to ſit than walk, to lie down than to ſit, to ſleep than to wake, and death is e beſt of all.

The Mahometans, who, in Indoſtan, are called Moors, are of Perſian, urkiſh, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the igns of the califs of Bagdat, to invade Indoſtan. They penetrated as r as Delhi, which they made their capital. They ſettled colonies in veral places, whoſe deſcendants are called Pytans; but their empire was erthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which ll ſubſiſts. Thoſe princes being ſtrict Mahometans, received under eir protection all who profeſſed the ſame religion, and who being a ave active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They e ſaid to have introduced the diviſion of provinces, over which they ap-inted ſoubahs; and thoſe provinces, each of which might be ſtiled a ngdom, were ſubdivided into nabobſhips, each nabob being immediately countable to his ſoubah, who in proceſs of time became almoſt inde-ndent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the great moguſ, upon their ying him an annual tribute. The vaſt reſort of Perſian and Tartar bes have likewiſe ſtrengthened the Mahometan government; but it is ſervable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all thoſe ad-turers, who though they bring nothing with them but their horſes and ir ſwords, degenerate into all the eaſtern indolence and ſenſuality.

Of all thoſe tribes, the Marattas at preſent make the greateſt figure. ey are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between In-ſtan and Perſia. They commonly ſerve on horſeback, and when well mmanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of lhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active rits, and pay no great reſpect to the principles of their religion. Mr. rafton ſays, that the Mahometans or Moors are of ſo deteſtable a cha-ter, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and thoſe re among the Tartar and Perſian officers of the army. They are void every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, s an appearance of hoſpitality, but it is an appearance only; for while y are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will ſtab him to the rt.

The people of Indoſtan are governed by no written laws, and their rts of juſtice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan inſtitutes vail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire ereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands in the hereditary line, and continue in that ſtate even down to the tenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent,

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both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each diſtrict. The imperial demeſne lands are thoſe of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his ſucceſſors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are beſtowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the ſub-tenants, even of thoſe lands, are indefeaſible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long ſubſiſted, without almoſt the ſemblance of virtue among its great officers either civil or military. It was ſhaken, however, after the invaſion of Mahomet Shah, which was attended by ſo great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the ſoubahs and nabobs became abſolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their own armies and ſupport their power; ſo that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-maſters, were left to periſh through want. To ſum up the miſery of the inhabitants, thoſe ſoubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the bramins and the Gentoos themſelves as the miniſters of their rapaciouſneſs and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever ſince the invaſion of Kouli Kan, Indoſtan, from being the best regulated government in the world, is become a ſcene of mere anarchy or ſtratocracy; every great man protects himſelf in his tyranny by his ſoldiers, whoſe pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private aſſaſſinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worſe eſtate, concern themſelves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above cauſes are owing the preſent ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in Indoſtan; and it is their intereſt to bring, as ſoon as poſſible, that government back to its firſt principle under the family of Tamerlane. The reader, from this repreſentation, may perceive likewiſe, that all that the Engliſh have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from uſurpers and robbers; and their poſſeſſion of it being guarantied by the preſent lawful emperor, is founded upon the laws and conſtitutions of that country.

It may be here proper juſt to obſerve, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both ſexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Perſians and Tartars, on account of the fairneſs of their complexion, reſembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane and his great generals.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2000	between	1 and 30 north latitude.
Breadth 1000		92 and 109 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninſula is bounded by Tibet and China on the north; by China, and the China ſea, on the eaſt; by the ſame ſea and the ſtraits of Malacca, on the ſouth; and by the bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the weſt.

Grand diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
On the north-weſt	Acham	Chamdara
	Ava	Ava
	Aracan	Aracan.
On the ſouth-weſt	Pegu	Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30.
	Martaban	Martaban
	Siam,	Siam, E. lon. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18.
	Malacca	Malacca, E. lon. 101. N. lat. 2-12.
On the north-eaſt	Tonquin	Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 22-10.
	Laos	Lanchang.
On the ſouth-eaſt	Cochin China	Thoanoa
	Cambodia	Cambodia
	Chiampa	Padram.

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was beſt known to the Perſians. The whole of this peninſula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly ſo to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] This country is ſo little known, that authors differ concerning its air, ſome preferring that of the ſouthern, and ſome that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in ſome places moiſt, and conſequently unhealthy. The climate is ſubject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, ſo that the people build their houſes upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of ſeaſons but wet and dry. Eaſterly and weſterly monſoons (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe run from north to ſouth almoſt the whole length of the country; but the lands near the ſea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon.

RIVERS.] The chief are Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The ſtraits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banſac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS. The ſoil of this peninſula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delicious fruits that are found in other countries, as well as roots and vegetables. It abounds likewiſe in ſilks, elephants and quadrupeds, both domeſtic and wild, that are common in the ſouthern kingdoms of Aſia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the moſt healthful country of all the peninſula. In ſome places, eſpecially towards the north, the inhabitants have ſwellings in their throats, owing to the badneſs of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The Tonquineſe are excellent mechanics and fair traders; but greatly oppreſſed by their king and great lords. His majeſty engroſſes the trade, and his factors ſell by retale to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquineſe are fond of lacquer houſes, which are unwholeſome and poiſonous.

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The people in the ſouth are a ſavage race, and go almoſt naked, wi large ſilver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or ſhell bracele In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two ſexes are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhab by their dreſs, which reſembles that of the Perſians. The people quality are fond of Engliſh broad-cloth, red or green, and others we a dark coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the be countries in Aſia, the inhabitants prefer dogs fleſh to all other anim food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, becauſe the king ſole proprietor of all the gold and ſilver and other metals found in h kingdom. They live however eaſily and comfortably. Almoſt ev houſe-keeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives a women, polygamy being practiſed all over India.

It is unqueſtionable that thoſe Indians, as well as the Chineſe, h the uſe of gunpowder before it was known in Europe, and the inve tion is generally aſcribed to the Azemeſe. The inhabitants of the ſouthe diviſion of this peninſula go under the name of Malayans, from t neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious ſuperſtitions that prevail in this peninſula a as groſs as thoſe deſcribed under the article of Tibet, and the civ government of the two countries in many particulars reſemble ea other, yet the people believe in a future ſtate; and when their kings a interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and ſuch veſſels gold and ſilver as they think can be of uſe to them in their future lif The people of this peninſula, are commonly very fond of ſhew, a often make an appearance beyond their circumſtances. They are deli cate in no part of their dreſs but in their hair, which they buckle up a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathſome, for beſid dogs, they eat rats, mice, ſerpents, and ſtinking fiſh. The people Arraken are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch a other foreigners to conſummate the nuptials with their virgins, and v lue their women moſt when in a ſtate of pregnancy. Their treatme of the ſick is ridiculous beyond belief; and in many places, when patient is judged to be incurable, he is expoſed on the bank of ſome rive where he is either drowned or devoured by birds or beaſts of prey.

The diverſions common in this country are fiſhing and hunting, t celebration of feſtivals, and their acting comedies by torch-light fro evening to morning.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Perſian, b in this peninſula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already obſerve interſperſed with other dialects.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is more than probable that t Egyptians, the nation from which the Greeks and Romans drew the fi arts, owed them to the bramins, and the Gentoos, who are ſometim called Banians. The names, however, of the legiſlators and bramin or whoever their learned men were who ſpread their knowledge among th Eaſt-Indians, have either periſhed or are obſcured by impenetrable clou of allegory. Some late Engliſh authors, who were well acquainted wi the affairs of Indoſtan, have aſſured us that that empire ſtill contain men of the moſt unſpotted lives and profound knowledge of all the ori ginal bramin theology, morality, and civil conſtitutions. Such men a hard to be diſcovered, but when acceſſible, they are modeſt and com municative in all branches of their learning, but thoſe in which th are enjoined an inviolable ſecrecy; and we have ſome well atteſted in

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ances where they have ſuffered death rather than betray their ſecrets, hich are hereditary in their families. Others, from the profligate ſelſh characters of the common bramins, think that all this ſanctity and earning is mere pretext and grimace. I have already mentioned their nderſtanding aſtronomy ſo far as to calculate eclipſes.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Theſe vary in the different ountries of this peninſula, but the chief branches have been already entioned. The inhabitants, in ſome parts, are obliged to manufacture eir ſalt out of aſhes. In all handicraft trades that they underſtand, he people are more induſtrious and better workmen than the Europeans; nd in weaving, ſewing, embroidering, and ſome other manufactures, t is ſaid that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their ands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amaingly vivid in its colours. The fineneſs of their linen, and their fillaree work in gold and ſilver, are beyond any thing of thoſe kinds to e found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in ſhort, s courted by all the trading nations in the world, and probably has een ſo from the earlieſt ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's ime; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their higheſt maerials of luxury. The greateſt ſhare of it, through events foreign to his part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of he Dutch is ſtill very conſiderable; that of the French has been for me time on the decline; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes entirely iſcontinued.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, RARITIES, AND CITIES.] This article is ſo extenſive, that it requires a ſlight review of the ingdoms that form this peninſula. In Azem, I have already obſerved, he king is proprietor of all the gold and ſilver: he pays little or noing to the great mogul. We know little or nothing of the kingdom f Tipra, but that it was antiently ſubject to the kings of Arrakan; nd that they ſend to the Chineſe gold and ſilk, for which they receive lver in return. Arrakan lies to the ſouth of Tipra, and is governed y twelve princes, ſubject to the chief king, who reſides in his capil. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, ſeven idols aſt in gold of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered ver with diamonds and other precious ſtones. Pegu is about 350 ngliſh miles in length, and almoſt the ſame in breadth. It is uncerin whether it is not at preſent ſubject to the king or emperor of Ava. he riches of the king (whoever he is) are almoſt incredible; ſome of is idols, as big as life, being of maſſy gold and ſilver. His revenues riſe from the rents of lands, of which he is ſole proprietor, and from uties on merchandiſe; ſo that ſome think him to be the richeſt moarch in the world, excepting the Chineſe emperor. He can bring a illion, and on occaſion, a million and a half of ſoldiers to the field, ell cloathed and armed; and he is ſaid to be maſter of 800 trained ephants, each with a caſtle on his back holding four ſoldiers. The onſtitution of his empire is of the feudal kind, for he aſſigns lands nd towns to his nobles upon military tenures. Macao is the great art of trade in Pegu.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava; we are not even ſure to hom it belongs. It is ſaid, the honours the king aſſumes are next to vine. His ſubjects trade chiefly in muſk and jewels, rubies, and ſaires. In other particulars, the inhabitants reſemble thoſe of Pegu.

In

In thoſe kingdoms, and indeed in the greateſt part of this peninſula, the doctrines of the Lama or Dairo, the living god, already deſcribed, equally prevail as thoſe of the bramins. Whether the former is not a corruption of the latter, and both of them ill underſtood Chriſtianity and Judaiſm, is an enquiry ſcarcely worth purſuing. The principles of the Lama are beſt calculated for rendering the king a mere cipher in his government, which is entirely veſted in his prieſts and miniſters.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos, formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is ſaid to be immenſely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the groſs ſuperſtitions of the eaſt, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one ſovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is abſolutely deſpotic, and lives in inexpreſſible pomp and magnificence; but being of the Lama religion, is the ſlave of his prieſts and miniſters.

The kingdom of Siam has been often deſcribed by Popiſh miſſionaries, and pretended travellers, in the moſt romantic terms, and therefore we can pay little other credit to their accounts, further than that it is a large, rich and flouriſhing kingdom, and that it approaches in its government, policy, the quickneſs and acuteneſs of its inhabitants, very near to the Chineſe. The inhabitants, of both ſexes, are more modeſt than any found in the reſt of this peninſula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are ſimple, and performed by their talapoins or prieſts, ſprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating ſome prayers. We are told that gold is ſo abundant in this country, that their moſt ponderous images are made of it, and that it is ſeen in vaſt quantities on the outſide of the king's palace. Thoſe relations are found by modern travellers to be the fictions of French and other miſſionaries; for though the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either exceſſive thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker that cover wooden or other materials. The government here is exceſſively deſpotic; even ſervants muſt appear before their maſters in a kneeling poſture; and the mandarines are proſtrated before the king. Siam, the capital, is repreſented as a large city, but ſcarcely a ſixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which ſtands about 18 leagues to the ſouth of Siam and 12 miles from the ſea, is the only place towards the coaſt that is fortified with walls, batteries, and braſs cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula at Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninſula of Malacca is a large country, and contains ſeveral kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are ſaid to be the real maſters and ſovereigns of the whole peninſula, being in poſſeſſion of the capital (Malacca.) The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the pureſt of any ſpoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latter travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephant's teeth, canes and gums. Some miſſionaries pretend that it is the Golden Cherſoneſus or peninſula of the antients, and that the inhabitants uſed to meaſure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent ſituation of this country admits of a trade with India; ſo that when it was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch

Dutch, Malacca was the richeſt city in the eaſt, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at preſent, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chineſe. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an induſtrious ingenious people, is eaſily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whoſe intereſt it is that they ſhould never recover from their preſent ſtate of ignorance and ſlavery.

The Engliſh carry on a ſmuggling kind of trade in their country ships, from the coaſt of Coromandel and the bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their ſuperiors, provided they can enrich themſelves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but according to the beſt information, its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about 520 Engliſh miles; and its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a ſpacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its ſultry air, and the peſtiferous gnats, ſerpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its ſoil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by ſea and land, are much the ſame with the other kingdoms of this vaſt peninſula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they ſay, an excellent remedy for all thoſe diſeaſes that are common to the inhabitants of the Eaſt-Indies, is the higheſt luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peaſant, but is very unpalatable and diſagreeable to the Europeans. The ſame barbarous magnificence, deſpotiſm of their king, and ignorance of the people prevail here, as throughout the reſt of the peninſula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chineſe, and ſeem therefore to be ſomewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the weſtern China, is ſituated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to ſome authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much leſs extenſive in its breadth from eaſt to weſt. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as ſome other ſmaller kingdoms, are ſaid to be tributary to Cochin-China, ſome particulars of which I have mentioned in the general view of this peninſula. The manners and religion of the people ſeem to be originally Chineſe, and they are much given to trade. Their king is ſaid to be immenſely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the Eaſt-Indies; but at the ſame time we are told, that this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, are ſubject to the Chineſe emperor. It is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that all thoſe rich countries were peopled from China, or at leaſt, that they had, ſome time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother empire became ſo large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reſerving to itſelf a kind of feudal ſuperiority over them all.

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and I can add little to what has been ſaid, unleſs I was to adopt the fictions of the popiſh miſſionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquineſe had revolted from the Chineſe, which was attended by a civil war. A compromiſe at laſt took place between the chief of the revolt and the repreſentative of the antient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of

of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, ſhould retain the royal titles, and be permitted ſome inconſiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can ſtir without the permiſſion of the chouah. This hiſtory ſeems to be of the lama extraction, or at leaſt copied from that worſhip.

The chouah reſides generally in the capital Cachao, which is ſituated near the center of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vaſt ſtructure, and has a fine arſenal. The Engliſh have a very flouriſhing houſe on the north ſide of their city, conveniently fitted up with ſtore-houſes and office-houſes, a noble dining-room, and handſome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The above is the imperfect account I am enabled, without departing from the rules of probability, to give of this vaſt peninſula. Its rarities, conſiſting of houſes overlaid with gold, and ſolid idols of the ſame metal, adorned with an infinite number of precious ſtones and jewels, are mentioned by many travellers; but it is difficult to give them credit when we conſider the undiſciplined weakneſs of the inhabitants, their ſuperſtition, indolence, ignorance, and native timidity; which muſt render them a prey not only to European adventurers, but to the Tartar conquerors of China. To this we may add, the univerſally admitted paſſion of thoſe people for oſtentation, and the many diſcoveries that have been made by candid travellers, of their diſplaying plated or gilded furniture and ornaments, at which they are wonderfully expert, for thoſe of maſſy gold.

The poſſeſſion of rubies, and other precious ſtones of an extraordinary ſize, and even of white or party-coloured elephants, convey among thoſe credulous people a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and have ſometimes occaſioned bloody wars. After all, it muſt be acknowledged that however dark the accounts we have of thoſe kingdoms may be, yet there is ſufficient evidences to prove that they are immenſely rich in all the treaſures of nature; but that thoſe advantages are attended with many natural calamities, ſuch as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempeſts, and above all, rapacious and poiſonous animals, which render the poſſeſſion of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

INDIA within the GANGES, or the Empire of the GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT; including the peninſula weſt of the Ganges.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	2000	between	7 and 40 north latitude.
Breadth	1500		66 and 92 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Uſbec Tartary and Tibet, on the north; by Tibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, on the ſouth; by the ſame and Perſia, on the weſt. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indoſtan properly ſo called.

Grand diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The north-eaſt diviſion of India, containing the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges, and thoſe of the mountains of Naugracut	Bengal Proper	Calcutta, Engliſh
		Hugley, Eng. and Dutch
		Dacca, Eng. and Dutch
		Malda, Eng. and Dutch
		Chandenagore, French
		Chatigan
		Caſſumbazar
	Naugracut —	Naugracut
	Jeſuat — —	Rajapour
	Patna — —	Patna
	Necbal — —	Necbal
	Gore — —	Gore
	Rotas — —	Rotas
The north-weſt diviſion on the frontiers of Perſia, and on the river of Indus	Soret — —	Jaganal
	Jeſſelmere ——	Jaſſelmere
	Tata, or Sinda	Tata
	Bucknor ——	Bucknor
	Multan ——	Multan
	Haican — —	Haican
	Cabul — —	Cabul
The middle diviſion	Candiſh ——	Medipour
	Berar ——	Berar
	Chitor ——	Chitor
	Ratipor ——	Ratipor
	Narvar ——	Narvar
	Gualeor ——	Gualeor
	Agra — —	Agra
	Delly — —	DELLY, E. lon. 79. N. lat. 28.
	Lahor, or Pencah	Lahor
	Hendowns —	Hendowns
	Caſſimere ——	Caſſimere
	Jengapour ——	Jengapour
	Aſmer, or Bando	Aſmer.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for months from the ſouth, and fix from the north. April, May, and beginning of June, are exceſſively hot, but refreſhed by ſea breezes: in ſome dry ſeaſons, the hurricanes, which tear up the ſands and let fall in dry ſhowers, are exceſſively diſagreeable. The Engliſh, conſequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indoſtan, commonly ſeized with ſome illneſs, ſuch as flux or fever, in their different appearances: but when properly treated, eſpecially if the patients abſtemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The moſt remarkable mountains are thoſe of Caucaſus Naugracut, which divide India from Perſia, Uſbec Tartary, and bet, and are inhabited by Marattas, Afghans or Patans, and other ple more warlike than the Gentoos. As to the mountains of Balagate, ich run almoſt the whole length of India from north to ſouth, they ſo high that they ſtop the weſtern monſoon, the rains beginning er on the Malabar coaſt than they do on the coaſt of Coromandel.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Indus and the Ganges, both of them known

to the antients, and held in the higheſt eſteem, and even veneration, by
modern inhabitants. Beſides thoſe rivers, many others water this countr

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are the Indian ocean; the
of Bengal; the gulph of Cambaya; the ſtraits of Ramanakoel; c
Comorin and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] I have already made a general review of this g
empire, and I have only to add to what I have ſaid of their religion
ſects, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or begg
who travel about practiſing the greateſt auſterities, but many of them
impoſtors. Their number is ſaid to be 800,000. Another ſet of m
dicants are the joghis, who are idolaters, and are ſuppoſed to be tw
millions in number, but all of them vagabonds, and lazy impoſtors,
live by amuſing the credulous Gentoos with fooliſh fictions. The Bani
who are ſo called from their affected innocence of life, ſerve as brok
and profeſs the Gentoo religion, or ſomewhat like it.

The Perſees, or Parſes, of Indoſtan, are originally the Gaurs, deſcri
in Perſia, but are a moſt induſtrious people, particularly in weavi
and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be poſſeſſed of
works of Zoroaſter, whom they call by various names, and which
Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw lights u
the antient hiſtory both ſacred and profane. This opinion is coun
nanced by the few parcels of thoſe books that have been publiſhed;
ſome are of opinion that the whole is a modern impoſture, founded u
ſacred, traditional, and profane hiſtories and religions.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow
well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the ſports of the fi
They affect ſhady walks and cool fountains, like other people in
countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and juggle
of barbarous muſic, both in wind and ſtring inſtruments, and play
cards in their private parties. Their houſes make no appearance,
thoſe of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatch
which renders them ſubject to fire; but the manufacturers chuſe to w
in the open air; and the inſides of houſes belonging to principal
ſons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleaſant, nay many of t
magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] I have already mentioned this arti
as well as the manufactures of India; but the Mahometan merch
here carry on a trade that has not been deſcribed, I mean that with Me
in Arabia, from the weſtern parts of this empire, up the Red-Sea. T
trade is carried on in a particular ſpecies of veſſels called junks,
largeſt of which, we are told, beſides the cargoes, will carry 1700 M
metan pilgrims to viſit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet
Abyſſinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they diſpoſe of t
cargoes for gold and ſilver; ſo that a Mahometan junk returning
this voyage is often worth 200,000 l.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Theſe are pretty uncert
eſpecially ſince the late re
lutions of the empire.

Guzarat is a maritime province on the gulph of Cambaya, and
of the fineſt in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people.
is ſaid to contain 35 cities. Amed-Abad is the capital of the prov
where there is an Engliſh factory, and is ſaid, in wealth, to vie
the richeſt towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues diſtant

rat, where the Engliſh have a flouriſhing factory. It was taken by em in the late war, but it is uncertain whether it is ſtill in their poſ-ſion.

The province of Agra is the largeſt in all Indoſtan, containing 40 rge towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greateſt city, and its caſtle e largeſt fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory ere, but the Engliſh have none.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewiſe e capital of Indoſtan. It is deſcribed as being a fine city, and con-ining the imperial palace, which is adorned with the uſual magni-cence of the Eaſt. Its ſtables formerly contained 12,000 horſes, brought om Arabia, Perſia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage burnt up by the heats of the ſeaſon, as is often the caſe, theſe horſes e ſaid to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and ſugar, and in e evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sinda, is a large city; and it is ſaid that a ague which happened in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manu-cturers in ſilk and cotton. It is ſtill famous for the manufacture of alaquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great en all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repoſe when they ppear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, orning and evening, 40 miles a day, ten being uſually hired, who rry the palaquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palaquin is dear firſt coſt, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten ſhillings a month ch, out of which they maintain themſelves. The Indus, at Tatta, is out a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Multan is not very fruitful, yet it yields cellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their ſituation, are abled to deal with the Perſians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 rſes.

The province of Caſſimere, being ſurrounded with mountains, is dif-cult of acceſs, but when entered, it appears to be the paradiſe of the dies. It is ſaid to contain 100,000 villages, to be ſtored with cattle and me, without any beaſts of prey. The capital (Caſſimere) ſtands by large lake; and both ſexes, the women eſpecially, are almoſt as fair the Europeans, and are ſaid to be witty, dextrous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the dian hiſtory, and is ſtill one of the largeſt and fineſt provinces in the dies, producing the beſt ſugars of any in Indoſtan. Its capital was ce about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in mmon with the other provinces of Indoſtan, excepting that they are habited by a hardy race of men, who ſeem never to have been con-ered, and though they ſubmit to the moguls, live in an eaſy, independ-t ſtate. In ſome of thoſe provinces many of the European fruits, ants, and flowers, thrive as in their native ſoil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the moſt intereſting an Engliſh reader. It is eſteemed to be the ſtorehouſe of the Eaſt-dies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by Nile; and the produce of its ſoil conſiſts of rice, ſugar-canes, corn, amum, ſmall mulberry, and other trees. Its callicoes, ſilks, ſalt-petre, ka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world; and proviſions e are in vaſt plenty, and incredibly cheap, eſpecially pullets, ducks,

and geese. The country is intersected by canals cut out of the Gang for the benefit of commerce; and extends near 100 leagues on both sid the Ganges, being full of cities, towns, villages and castles.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its great purity; and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with the magnificent pagods or temples. The women, notwithstanding their re gion, are said by some to be lascivious and enticing.

The principal English factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is call Fort William; it is situated on the river Hughly, the most weste branch of the Ganges. The fort itself is said to be irregular, a untenable against disciplined troops; but the servants of the compa have provided themselves with an excellent house, and most convenie apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itself may now said to be in possession of the company, an English civil gover ment, by a mayor and aldermen, has been introduced into it. It do not, however, seem to give general satisfaction, on account of the influence which the company has always over the magistrates, and ma complaints from private persons have lately reached England.

In 1756, the Indian nabob, or viceroy, quarrelled with the compan and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governo and some of the principal persons of the place, threw themselves, wi their chief effects, on board the ships in the river; they who remaine for some hours bravely defended the place; but their ammunition bei expended, they surrendered upon terms. The soubah, a capricious a feeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwe the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little b secure prison, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen fe square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. The miseries during the night were inexpressible, and before morning more than 23 were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, whi was generally attended with a horrible phrensy. Among those sav was Mr. Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of t catastrophe. The insensible tyrant returned to his capital, after plu dering the place, imagining he had routed the English out of his dom nions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson and colonel (no lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession the place; and the war was concluded by the glorious battle of Plass gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Suraja Dowla, whose place Mhir Jaffeir was advanced to the soubahship.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna Maksudabad; and Bannares, lying in the same province, is the Gent university, and celebrated for its sanctity.

Chandenagore, is the principal place possessed by the French in Be gal; it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though strong fortified, and furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indian and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken the late war by the English admirals Watson and Pocock, and colon Clive. Hugley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon t Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian com modities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The fear for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpo which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hugley, for about 50 mi farther. Dakka is said to be the largest city of Bengal, and the

nes up to its walls. It contains an Engliſh and a Dutch factory. he other chief towns are Caſſumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagur, and aldo; beſides a number of other places of leſs note, but all of them ch in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province of Malva, which lies to the eſt of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and at its chief city is Ratiſpor. The province of Kandiſh includes that Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, ſo that it is prodigious extent, and carries on a vaſt trade in chintzes, callicoes, d embroidered ſtuffs.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire to the orth of what is properly called the peninſula within the Ganges. hoſe that lie to the ſouthward fall into the deſcription of the penin-la itſelf.

HISTORY.] It is not at all to the credit of our Eaſt-India company's ervants, that notwithſtanding their long reſidence in Indoſtan, they iffer in their accounts of the revolutions of that country. All we now for certain is, that Tamerlane made a deep impreſſion upon this ountry, and that the preſent emperor pretends to reign in his right. The hiſtory of his immediate deſcendents has been variouſly repreſented, ut all agree in the main that they were magnificent and deſpotic rinces, that they committed their provinces, as has been already ob-erved, to rapacious governors, or to their own ſons, by which their mpire was often miſerably torn in pieces. At length, towards the middle f the laſt century, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though he youngeſt among many ſons of the reigning emperor, after defeating r murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indoſtan, and ay be conſidered as the real founder and legiſlator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the firſt who extended his do-inion, though it was little better than nominal, over the peninſula ithin the Ganges, which is at preſent ſo well known to the Engliſh. He lived ſo late as the year 1707, and it is ſaid that ſome of his great fficers of ſtate were alive in the year 1750. From what has been al-eady ſaid of this empire, Aurengzebe ſeems to have left too much ower to the governors of his diſtant provinces, and to have been at no ains in preventing the effects of that dreadful deſpotiſm, which while n his hands preſerved the tranquillity of his empire, but when it deſcended o his weak indolent ſucceſſors, occaſioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandſons diſputed the empire, which, after a bloody ſtruggle, fell to the eldeſt, Mauzo'din, who took the name of Jehandar Shah. This prince was a ſlave to his pleaſures, and was go-verned by his miſtreſs ſo abſolutely, that his great omrahs conſpired againſt him, and raiſed to the throne one of his nephews, who ſtruck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whoſe name was Furrukhſir, was governed, and at laſt enſlaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abuſed his power ſo groſsly, that being afraid to puniſh them pub-licly, he ordered them both to be privately aſſaſſinated. They diſcovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whoſe place they raiſed a grandſon of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of ſeventeen years of age, after impriſoning and ſtrangling Furrukhſir. The young emperor proved diſagreeable to the brothers, and being ſoon poiſoned, they raiſed to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indoſtan, whoſe anceſtors had entered into ſtipulations,

or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field againſt the two brothers, but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil poſſeſſion of the empire, but died in 1719. He was ſucceeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and entered into private meaſures with his great rajahs for deſtroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is ſaid, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himſelf againſt the brothers, and to proclaim himſelf ſoubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was aſſaſſinated by the emperor's order, who immediately advanced to Delhi to deſtroy the other brother; but he no ſooner underſtood what had happened, than he proclaimed the ſultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle enſued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is ſaid to have uſed his conqueſt with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the priſon from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewiſe a priſoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took poſſeſſion of his vaſt riches. Seyd did not long ſurvive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himſelf to the ſame courſe of pleaſures that had been ſo fatal to his predeceſſors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed againſt the Marrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almoſt made themſelves maſters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his ſoubahſhip, and was conſidered as the firſt ſubject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwiſe Kouli Khan, the Perſian monarch, to invade Indoſtan. It is thought that he had intelligence of a ſtrong party formed againſt him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have ſucceſs, and at firſt wanted to make himſelf uſeful by oppoſing him. The ſucceſs of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immenſe treaſure which he carried from Indoſtan in 1739. Beſides thoſe treaſures, he obliged the Mogul to ſurrender to him all the lands to the weſt of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyſhor, Kabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almoſt equal in value to the crown of Perſia itſelf.

This invaſion coſt the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, ſome accounts, and thoſe too ſtrongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible ſum of two hundred and thirty-one millions ſterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of thoſe times. The moſt moderate ſay that Nadir's own ſhare amounted to conſiderably above ſeventy millions. Be that as it will, the invaſion of Nadir Shah may be conſidered as putting a period to the greatneſs of the Mogul empire in the houſe of Tamerlane. The hiſtory of it, ſince that time, is leſs known than that of Tamerlane itſelf. According to the beſt accounts, upon the retreat of Nadir Shah, who left the emperor in poſſeſſion of his dignity, the Patans invaded his dominions; and ſo treacherous were the emperor's generals and miniſtry, that none of them would head an army againſt them, till the emperor's ſon, a youth of eighteen years of age, bravely undertook the command, puniſhed the conſpiracy that had been formed againſt his father, and completely defeated the invaders. During this campaign, the emperor was ſtrangled by his vizier: but by a courſe of well-acted diſſimulation, the young

young emperor, who was called Amet Shah, found means to put the conspirators to death, but soon after was driven from his throne by a fresh invasion of the Patans and Marattas. Some pretend that one Allum Geer was first proclaimed emperor, and then murdered by the same vizier, who raised another prince to the throne. Whether this Allum Geer is the same with Amet Shah is uncertain, as are the intermediate revolutions that followed. At present, the imperial dignity of Indostan is vested in Shah Zadah, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble, and he depends upon the protection of the English, whose interest it is to support him, as his authority is the best legal guarantee.

As to the government and constitution of Indostan, we must refer to what we have already observed. The emperor of Indostan, or great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane the Mongul or Mogul Tartar) on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, *The Conqueror of the World, the Ornament of the Throne*, &c. but he is never crowned.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The south-east coast of India, situate on the bay of Bengal, usually called the coast of Coromandel	Madura ——	Madura
	Tanjour ——	Tanjour
		Tranquebar, Danes
	East side of Bisnagar, or Carnate ——	Negapatan, Dutch
		Bisnagar
		Portanova, Dutch
		Fort St. David, English
		Pondicherry, Conymere, French
		Coblon
		Sadrasapatan, Dutch
		St. Thomas, Portuguese
		Fort St. George, or Madrass, E. lon. 80-32. N. lat. 13-11. English.
		Pellicate, Dutch
	Golconda ——	Golconda
		Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines
		Mussulapatan, English and Dutch
		Vizacapatan, English
		Bimlipatan, Dutch
	Orixa ——	Orixa
		Ballasore, English
The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar	West side of Besnagar, or Carnate ——	Tegapatan, Dutch
		Angengo, English
		Cochin, Dutch
		Callicut, Eng. Fr. Port.
		Tillicherry, English
		Canannore, Dutch

Grand diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar	Decan, or Viſiapour ——	Monguelore, Baſſilore } Dutch and Portugueſe
		Raalconda, diamond mines.
		Cawar, Engliſh
		Goa, Portugueſe
	Cambaya, or Guzarat	Rajapore, French
		Dabal, Engliſh
		Dundee, Shoule, } Portugueſe
		Bombay, iſle and town, Engliſh, 18-30 N. lat. 72 E. lon.
		Baſſaim, Salſette, } Portugueſe
		Damon, Portugueſe
		Surat, E. lon. 72-25. N. lat. 21-10
		Swalley
		Barak, Engliſh and Dutch
		Amedabat
		Cambaya
		Dieu, Portugueſe.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to ſouth, renders it winter on one ſide of this peninſula, while it is ſummer on the other. About the end of June, a ſouth-weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea, on the coaſt of Malabar, which, with continual rains, laſts four months, during which time all is ſerene upon the coaſt of Coromandel (the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts being ſo denominated.) Towards the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon, and the change of the monſoon begins on the Coromandel coaſt, which being deſtitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ſhips to remain there, during that time, and to this is owing the periodical returns of the Engliſh ſhipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coaſt. The air is naturally hot in this peninſula, but is refreſhed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the ſea, which laſt proves a great refreſhment to the inhabitants of the coaſt. The produce of the ſoil is the ſame with that of the other part of the Eaſt-Indies. The like may be ſaid of their quadrupeds, fiſh, fowl, and noxious creatures and inſects.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion, than thoſe of the other peninſula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes ſome ſuſpect them to be the deſcendents of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greateſt part of them have but a faint notion at preſent, of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indoſtan, whoſe tribute from thence has been ever ſince the invaſion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their ſoubahs and nabobs, who now exerciſe an independent power in the government, though even Suraja Dowla was glad to receive a deputation from the emperor, now reigning, on his father; but beſides theſe ſoubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many eſtates in this peninſula belong to rajahs or lords, who are the deſcendents of their old princes, and look upon themſelves as being independent on the mogul, and his authority.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

From what has been said above, this peninsula is rather to be divided into great governments, or ſoubahſhips, than into provinces. One ſoubah often engroſſes ſeveral provinces, and fixes the ſeat of his government, according to his own conveniency. I ſhall ſpeak of thoſe provinces, as belonging to the Malabar or Coromandel coaſt, the two great objects of Engliſh commerce in that country; and firſt, of the eaſtern, or Coromandel coaſt.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the ſouthermoſt point of the peninſula. It is about the bigneſs of the kingdom of Portugal, and is ſaid to be governed by a ſovereign king, who has under him 70 tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax. The chief value of this kingdom ſeems to conſiſt of a pearl fiſhery upon its coaſt. Tanjour is a little kingdom, lying to the eaſt of Madura. The ſoil is fertile, and its prince, rich. Within it lies the Daniſh Eaſt-India ſettlement of Tranquebar, and the Dutch fortreſs of Nagapatan, and the capital city is Tanjour.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the Engliſh. It is bounded on the eaſt by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Chriſtina, which divides it from Golkonda; on the weſt by Viſapur, or Viſiapur, and, on the ſouth, by the kingdoms of Meſſaur and Tanjour; being in length, from ſouth to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The capital of the Carnatic is Biſnagar, and the country in general is eſteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coaſt, lies fort St. David's, belonging to the Engliſh, with a diſtrict round it. The fort is ſtrong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north, lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the Eaſt-Indies, but now demoliſhed by the Engliſh, who, in the courſe of the late war, took this and moſt of their other ſettlements in the Mogul empire; but the whole were reſtored at the peace of 1763, with this limitation, that the French ſhould erect no fortifications, or keep troops in any part of the dominions of the ſoubah of Bengal.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madraſs, is the capital of the Engliſh Eaſt-India company's dominions in the Eaſt Indies, and is diſtant eaſtward from London, about 4800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the ſituation of this fort. No pains have been ſpared by the company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought againſt it by the natives. It protects two towns, called from the complexions of their ſeveral inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an Engliſh corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badneſs of its ſituation, which ſeems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey diſtant. Thoſe mines are under the tuition of a mogul officer, who lets them out by admeaſurement, and enclofing the contents by palliſadoes, all diamonds above a certain weight belong to the emperor. The diſtrict belonging to Madraſs, is of little value for its product, and muſt import its own proviſions. 80,000 inhabitants of various nations, are ſaid to be dependent upon Madraſs; but its ſafety conſiſts in the ſuperiority of the Engliſh by ſea. It carries on a conſiderable trade with China, Perſia, and Mocha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immenſe fortunes acquired by the Engliſh, upon this coaſt, within theſe 20 years. The governor of Madraſs has a council to aſſiſt him, and when he goes abroad, appears in

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vaſt ſplendor. The differences that now rage among the directors and proprietors of the company in England, prevent my ſaying any thing concerning the police of this government. The company has received all the encouragement and aſſiſtance the Engliſh parliament can give them, even to the introducing of martial law into their poſſeſſions. There ſeems, however, to be ſome fundamental errors in their conſtitution. The directors conſider the riches acquired by their governors and other ſervants, as being plundered from the company, and of late they have ſent out ſuperintendents to controul their governors and overgrown ſervants, but with what ſucceſs time muſt demonſtrate. As this is a ſubject of the greateſt importance, that ever perhaps occurred in the geography of a commercial country, the reader will indulge me in one or two reflections, as I am not to reſume the ſubject.

The Engliſh Eaſt-India company, through the diſtractions of the Mogul empire, the ſupport of our government, and the undaunted but fortunate ſucceſſes of their military officers, have acquired ſo amazing a property in this peninſula, and in Indoſtan, that it is ſuperior to the revenues of many crowned heads, and ſome of their own ſervants pretend, that when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions ſterling, out of which they are to pay 400,000 l. annually, to the government, while they are ſuffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it ariſes, is beſt known to the company, part of it however has been granted in landed property, and part of it is ſecured on mortgages, for diſcharging their expences in ſupporting the intereſts of their friends, the emperor, and the reſpective ſoubahs and nabobs they have aſſiſted.

Be that as it may, this company exerciſes at preſent many rights appropriated to ſovereignty, ſuch as thoſe of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Thoſe powers are undoubtedly incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and it became the dignity of the Engliſh government, to ſend out an officer of their own, (as they have done in the perſon of Sir John Lindſay) to take ſuch meaſures with the eaſtern princes and potentates, as may render the acquiſitions of the company permanent and national.

Without entering into any diſputes agitated of late between the directors and the government, the poſſibility of ſuch a permanency and even extending our influence in India, is pretty evident. From what has been already ſaid, the Gentoos are entirely paſſive in all the revolutions of their government. The Moors, or Mahometans, ignorant and treacherous as they are, appear to have no violent attachments to any religious principle, and are abject enough to live under any form of government, that their emperor ſhall preſcribe; nor are they at preſent, when the Engliſh are his friends, in any condition to diſpute their joint wills. Theſe conſiderations manifeſt the wiſdom of not driving them into deſperate meaſures, and thereby effecting a union of their forces, which muſt prove fatal to the Britiſh intereſt there; and in any event muſt render it precarious, unleſs ſupported in the name, and by the authority of the Britiſh empire.

Pellicate, lying to the north of Madraſs, belongs to the Dutch. We know little of the kingdom and capital of Ikkari. The celebrated Heyder Ally, with whom the company has lately made a peace, is ſaid to be a native of the kingdom of Meſſur, which lies to the ſouth-weſt of the Carnatic,

atic; and the Chriſtians of the apoſtle St. Thomas, live at the foot of he mountains Gatti, that ſeparate Meſſar from Malabar. I have already entioned the kingdom of Golkonda, which beſides its diamonds, is amous for the cheapneſs of its proviſions, and for making white wine of rapes that are ripe in January. Golkonda is ſaid to be ſubject to a prince, ho, though tributary to the Mogul, is immenſely rich, and can raiſe oo,ooo men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagar, but he kingdom takes its name from the city of Golkonda. Eaſt-ſouth-eaſt f Golkonda, lies Maſulipatan, where the Engliſh and Dutch have factoies. The Engliſh have alſo factories at Ganjam, and Vizigapatan, on his coaſt; and the Dutch at Narſipore. The province of Orixa, from hence the Engliſh company draw great part of their revenues, lies to the orth of Golkonda, extending in length from eaſt to weſt, about 550 iles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed likewiſe by a tributary rince. In this province ſtands the idolatry temple of Jagaryunt, which ey ſay is attended by 500 prieſts. The idol is an irregular pyramidal lack ſtone, of about 4 or 500 weight, with two rich diamonds near the p, to repreſent eyes, and the noſe and mouth painted with vermilion.

The country of Dekan comprehends ſeveral large provinces, and ſome ingdoms, particularly thoſe of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingom of Viſiapur. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and governments f thoſe provinces, are extremely unſettled; they having been reduced by urengzebe, or his father, and ſubject to almoſt annual revolutions and terations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their ſituation and xtent, but we are told, that the principal towns are Aureng-abad, and olt-abad, or Dowlet-abad; and that the latter is the ſtrongeſt place in ll Indoſtan. Near it lies the famous pagods of Elora, in a plain about o leagues ſquare. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many houſand figures that ſurround it, are ſaid to be cut out of the natural ck, and to ſurpaſs all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on e eaſt of Golkonda, and its capital Beder, contains a garriſon of 3000 en. The inhabitants of this province ſpeak a language peculiar to emſelves.

Baglana lies to the weſt of Telenga, and forms the ſmalleſt province f the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portugueze territory begins re at the port of Daman, 21 leagues ſouth of Surat, and extends almoſt leagues to the north of Goa.

Viſiapur is a large kingdom tributary to the Mogul, but its particular xtent is uncertain. The weſtern part is called Konkan, which is interingled with the Portugueze poſſeſſions. The king of Viſiapur is ſaid have a yearly revenue of ſix millions ſterling, and to bring to the field 50,000 ſoldiers. His capital is of the ſame name, and his country very uitful. The principal places on this coaſt are, Daman, Baſſaim Trapor, Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajupur, Ghiria; and Vinrla. The Portugueze have loſt ſeveral valuable poſſeſſions on this coaſt, d thoſe which remain are on the decline.

Among the iſlands lying upon the ſame coaſt is that of Bombay, beonging to the Engliſh Eaſt-India company. Its harbour can conveniatly hold 1000 ſhips at anchor. The iſland itſelf is about ſeven miles length, and twenty in circumference, but its ſituation and harbour e its chief recommendations, being deſtitute of almoſt all the conveiencies of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built, and e climate was fatal to Engliſh conſtitutions, till experience, caution

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and temperance, taught them preſervatives againſt its unwholeſomeneſs. The beſt water there is preſerved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy ſeaſons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of ſtone. Many black merchants reſide here. This iſland was part of the portion paid with the infanta of Portugal, to Charles II. who gave it to the Eaſt-India company, and the iſland is ſtill divided into three Roman-catholic pariſhes, inhabited by Portugueze, and what are called popiſh Meſtizos and Canarins, the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueze, and the other the aborigines of the country. The Engliſh have fallen upon methods to render this iſland and town, under all their diſadvantages, a ſafe, if not an agreeable reſidence. The reader need ſcarcely be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay, have lucrative poſts as well as the officers under them. The troops on the iſland, are commanded by Engliſh officers, and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and diſciplined, are here, and all over the Eaſt-Indies, called Seapoys. The inhabitants of the iſland amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmoleſted.

Near Bombay are ſeveral other iſlands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the moſt inexplicable antiquity, perhaps, in the world. A figure of an elephant of the natural ſize cut coarſely in ſtone, preſents itſelf on the landing place, near the bottom of a mountain. An eaſy ſlope then leads to a ſtupendous temple, hewn out of the ſolid rock, 80 or 90 feet long, and 40 broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is ſupported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, reſembling round cuſhions, as if preſſed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end, are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portugueze. Beſides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the ſtone; one of the latter bearing a rude reſemblance of the judgment of Solomon; beſides a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of reſemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The iſland and city of Goa, the capital of the Portugueze ſettlements in the Eaſt-Indies, lies about 30 miles ſouth of Vingurla. The iſland is about 27 miles in compaſs. It has one of the fineſt and beſt fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a moſt ſuperb ſettlement, and was ſurpaſſed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is ſaid that the revenues of the Jeſuits upon this iſland, equalled thoſe of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the reſt of the Portugueze poſſeſſions on this coaſt, are under a viceroy, who ſtill keeps up the remains of the antient ſplendor of the government. The rich peninſula of Salſette is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies ſouth of the Portugueze territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the mogul. The Engliſh factory of Corwar, is one of the moſt pleaſant and healthful of any upon the Malabar coaſt. Kanora lies about 40 miles to the ſouth of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its ſoil is famous for producing rice, that ſupplies many parts of Europe, and ſome of the Indies. The Kanorines are ſaid generally to be governed by a lady, whoſe ſon has the title of rajah, and her ſubjects are accounted the braveſt and moſt civilized of any in that peninſula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole ſouth-weſt coaſt of the peninſula, yet it is confined at preſent to the country ſo called, lying on the weſt of cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin.

Mala-

Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic, and the country itſelf is rich and fertile, but peſtered with green adders, whoſe poiſon is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itſelf. The moſt remarkable places in Malabar are Cannanore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tillicheri, where the Engliſh have a ſmall ſettlement, keeping a conſtant garriſon of 30 or 40 ſoldiers. Callicut, where the Engliſh, French and Portugueze have ſmall factories, beſides various other diſtinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the ſouthermoſt part of this peninſula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the ſame garden, the two ſeaſons of the year; the trees being loaded with bloſſoms and fruit on the one ſide, while on the other ſide they are ſtripped of all their leaves. This ſurprizing phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains ſo often mentioned, which traverſe the whole peninſula from ſouth to north. On the oppoſite ſides of the Cape, the winds are conſtantly at variance; blowing from the weſt on the weſt ſide, and from the eaſt on the eaſtern ſide.

Before I take my leave of India, it may be proper to obſerve, that in the little diſtrict of Cochin within Malabar, are to be found ſome thouſands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manaſſeh, and to have records engraved on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are ſaid to be ſo poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like diſcoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Aſia, which have occaſioned various ſpeculations among the learned.

PERSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1300	between	45 and 70 eaſt long.
Breadth 1100	between	25 and 44 north lat.

BOUNDARIES.] MODERN Perſia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiſtan, which divide it from Circaſſian Tartary, on the north-weſt; by the Caſpian ſea, which divides it from Ruſſia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Uſbec Tartary, on the north-eaſt; by India on the eaſt, and by the Indian ocean, and the gulphs of Perſia and Ormus, on the ſouth; and by Arabia and Turkey on the weſt.

Modern Perſia comprehends the antient Hyrcania, Bactria, Suſiana, Parthia, Media, and part of Aſſyria, Iberia, and Colchis. The modern diviſions of Perſia are extremely uncertain, and of little importance to the reader.

NAME.] Perſia, according to the poets, derives its name from Perſus, the ſon of Jupiter and Danae. Leſs fabulous authors ſuppoſe it derived from Paras, which ſignifies a horſeman, the Perſians or Parthians being always celebrated for their ſkill in horſemanſhip.

AIR.] In ſo extenſive an empire this is very different. Thoſe parts which border upon Caucaſus and Daghiſtan, and the mountains near the Caſpian ſea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of thoſe mountains which are commonly covered with ſnow. The air in the midland provinces of Perſia is ſerene, pure, and exhilarating, but in the ſouthern provinces

provinces it is hot, and ſometimes communicates noxious blaſts to the midland parts, which are ſo often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] Thoſe vary like the air. The ſoil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary, and the Caſpian ſea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life, are equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, ſenna, rhubarb, and the fineſt of drugs. The fruits are delicious, eſpecially their dates, oranges, piſtachio-nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden ſtuff, not to mention vaſt quantities of excellent ſilk; and the gulph of Baſſora, formerly furniſhed great part of Europe and Aſia with very fine pearls. Some parts near Iſpahan eſpecially produce almoſt all the flowers that are valued in Europe, and from ſome of them, the roſes eſpecially, they extract waters of a ſalubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In ſhort, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Perſia, are of a moſt exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture, to as great perfection as ſome nations in Europe, by tranſplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Perſian aſſa fœtida flows from a plant called Hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and ſome black; but the former is ſo much valued, that the natives make very rich ſauces of it, and ſometimes eat it as a rarity.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are Caucaſus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghiſtan; and the vaſt collection of mountains called Taurus, and their diviſions run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been obſerved, that no country, of ſo great an extent, has ſo few navigable rivers as Perſia. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which riſe in or near the mountains of Ararat, and joining their ſtreams fall into the Caſpian ſea. Some ſmall rivulets falling from the mountains, water the country, but their ſtreams are ſo inconſiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can ſcarcely be called a Perſian river, though it divides Perſia from Uſbec Tartary. Perſia has the river Indus on the eaſt, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the weſt.

WATER.] The ſcarcity of rivers in Perſia, is joined to a ſcarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well ſupplied by means of reſervoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Perſia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoiſe ſtones, which are found in Choraſan. Sulphur, ſalt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have been diſcovered near Tauris, and natural ſalt in the province of Carkmenia.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It is impoſſible to ſpeak with any certainty concerning the population of a country ſo little known as that of Perſia. If we are to judge by the vaſt armies in modern as well as in ancient times, raiſed there, the numbers it contains muſt be very great. The Perſians of both ſexes are generally handſome, the men being fond of Georgian and Circaſſian women. Their complexions

towards the ſouth, are ſomewhat ſwarthy. The men ſhave their heads, but the young men ſuffer a lock of hair to grow on each ſide, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them coſt 25 pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, ſo that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of reſpect, even to the king. Their dreſs is very ſimple. Next to the ſkin they wear callico ſhirts, over them a veſt, which reaches below the knee, girt with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe garment ſomewhat ſhorter. The materials of their cloaths, however, are commonly very expenſive, conſiſting of the richeſt furs, ſilks, muſlin, cottons, and the like valuable ſtuffs, richly embroidered with gold and ſilver. They wear a kind of looſe boots on their legs, and ſlippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expenſive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their ſaſh, and linnen trowzers. The collars of their ſhirts and cloaths are open, ſo that their dreſs upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpoſes both of health and activity, than the long flowing robes of the Turks.

The dreſs of the women is not much different; their wear as well as that of the men, is very coſtly, and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and waſhes.

The Perſians accuſtom themſelves to frequent waſhings and ablutions, which are the more neceſſary, as they ſeldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, ſweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night, when they ſup upon pilau, already deſcribed. They are temperate, but uſe opium, though not in ſuch abundance as the Turks, nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great maſters of ceremony towards their ſuperiors, and ſo polite, that they accommodate Europeans who viſit them with ſtools, that they may not be forced to ſit croſs-legged. They are ſo immoderately fond of tobacco, which they ſmoke through a tube fixed in water, ſo as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country, rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Perſians are naturally fond of poetry, moral ſentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and their national revolutions, have mingled the native Perſians with barbarous nations, and are ſaid to have taught them diſſimulation; but they are ſtill pleaſing and plauſible in their behaviour, and in all ages they have been remarkable for hoſpitality.

The Perſians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left, and are neat in their ſeals and materials for writing, and are wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuſcripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible ſeems to be oſtentation in their equipages and dreſſes; nor are they leſs jealous of their women than the Turks, and other eaſtern nations. They are fond of muſic, and take a pleaſure in converſing in large companies; but their chief diverſions are thoſe of the field, hunting, hawking, horſemanſhip, and the exerciſe of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their anceſtors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild-beaſts, and privately play at games of chance.

Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Perſia, as well

well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants, who intend to ſtay ſome time in any city, commonly apply to the cadee, or judge, for a wife during the time he propoſes to ſtay. The cadee, for a ſtated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honeſt, and free from diſeaſes, and he becomes ſurety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Ruſſian embaſſy to Perſia declares, that among thouſands, there has not been one inſtance of their diſhoneſty, during the time agreed upon.

RELIGION.] The Perſians are Mahometans of the ſect of Ali, for which reaſon the Turks, who follow the ſucceſſion of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if poſſible, in ſome things more fantaſtical and ſenſual than that of the Turks, but in many points it is mingled with ſome bramin ſuperſtitions. When they are taxed by the Chriſtians with drinking ſtrong liquors, as many of them do, they anſwer very ſenſibly, "You Chriſtians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing ſins, which is the very caſe with us." To enumerate their ſuperſtitions, faſts, and ceremonies, would require a volume, which, when read, could communicate neither inſtruction nor entertainment. Having mentioned the bramins, the compariſon between them and the Perſian guebres, or gaurs, who pretend to be the diſciples and ſucceſſors of the antient magi, the followers of Zoroaſter, may be highly worth a learned diſquiſition: that both of them held originally pure and ſimple ideas of a ſupreme Being, may be eaſily proved, but the Indian bramins and parſes accuſe the gaurs, who ſtill worſhip the fire, of having ſenſualized thoſe ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combuſtible ground, about ten miles diſtant from Baku, a city in the north of Perſia, is the ſcene of the guebres devotions. It muſt be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very ſurprizing inflammatory qualities, and contains ſeveral old little temples, in one of which the guebres pretend to preſerve the ſacred flame of the univerſal fire, which riſes from the end of a large hollow cane ſtuck into the ground, reſembling a lamp burning, with very pure ſpirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the gaurs, who were baniſhed out of Perſia, by Shah Abbas. Their ſect, however, is ſaid to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Perſians and the Romans, ſeem early to have driven the antient Chriſtians into Perſia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many ſects are found, that evidently have Chriſtianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them called ſouffees, who are a kind of quietiſts, ſacrifice their paſſions to God, and profeſs the moral duties. The Sabean Chriſtians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaiſm and Mahometaniſm, and are numerous towards the Perſian Gulph. I have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Chriſtians, who are very numerous in Perſia.

I have been the more explicit on the head of religion, as the preſent race of Perſians are ſaid to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their ignorance of all religion, and their late wars with the Turks. It has therefore been thought by ſome writers, that great advantages in point of commerce, may be derived from this indifference in matters of religion, if the natives ſhould be properly ſupported by the Chriſtian powers.

LANGUAGE.] It has been diſputed among the learned, whether the

Arabs had not their language from the Perſians, but this chiefly reſts on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Perſian language, and the deciſion ſeems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, eſpecially towards the ſouthern coaſts of the Caſpian ſea, ſpeak Turkiſh, and the Arabic probably was introduced into Perſia, under the califate, when learning flouriſhed in thoſe countries. The learned Perſians have generally written in the Arabic, and people of quality among them have adopted it as the modiſh language, as we do the French. The pure Perſic is ſaid to be ſpoken in the ſouthern parts, on the coaſt of the Perſian gulph, and in Iſpahan, but many of the provinces ſpeak a barbarous mixture of the Turkiſh, Ruſſian, and other languages. Their Pater Noſter is of the following tenour: *Ei Padere ma kih der oſmoni*; *bak baſched nâm tu*; *bayayed padſchahi tu*; *ſehwad chwáaſte tu henzjuáaukih, der oſmon niz derzemîn*; *béh mára jmrouz nân keſâf rouz mara*; *wadargudſar mara konâhân ma zjunankihma niz mig ſarim ormân mara*; *wador oznajiſch minedâzzmara*; *likin chalás kun mara ez eſcherir*. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Perſians, in antient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the eaſt. At preſent their learning is merely mechanical, nor do they even underſtand the Koran, which they read in Arabic. Their boaſted ſkill in aſtronomy is now reduced to a mere ſmattering in that ſcience, and terminates in judicial aſtrology; ſo that no people in the world are more ſuperſtitious than the Perſians. The learned profeſſion in greateſt eſteem among them is that of medicine, which is at perpetual variance with aſtrology, becauſe every doſe muſt be adminiſtered in the lucky hour fixed by the aſtrologer, which often defeats the ends of the preſcription. It is ſaid, however, that the Perſian phyſicians are acute and ſagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no ſtrangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; as equally rare are many other diſeaſes that are fatal in other places, ſuch as the gout, the ſtone, the head-ach, the tooth-ach, the ſmall-pox, conſumptions, and apoplexies. The Perſian practice of phyſic is therefore pretty much circumſcribed, ſo that they are very ignorant in ſurgery, which is exerciſed by barbers, whoſe chief knowledge of it is in letting blood, for they truſt the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The monuments of antiquity in Perſia, are more celebrated for their magnificence and expence, than their beauty or taſte. No more than nineteen columns which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Perſepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and compoſed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other antient buildings are found in many parts of Perſia, but void of that elegance and beauty, that is diſplayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Perſia are ſtupendous works, being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with ſculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be ſeen at Iſpahan, 60 feet high, conſiſting of the ſkulls of beaſts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect ſuch a column of human ſkulls, but upon the ſubmiſſion of the rebels, he performed his vow by ſubſtituting thoſe of brutes, each of the rebels furniſhing one.

The baths near Combroon, work ſuch cures, that they are eſteemed among the natural curioſities of Perſia. The ſprings of the famous Naphtha,

near Baku, are mentioned often in natural hiſtory for their ſurprizing qualities; but the chief of the natural curioſities in this country, is the burning phænomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houſes of men of quality in Perſia, are in the ſame taſte with thoſe of the Aſiatic Turks already deſcribed. They are ſeldom above one ſtory high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumſey and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houſes being built apart. Few of them have chimneys, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly conſiſts of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which ſerve them likewiſe as coverlits, with carpets under them.

Iſpahan or Spahawn, the capital of Perſia, is ſeated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which ſupplies it with water. It is ſaid to be twelve miles in circumference. The ſtreets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amuſement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houſes, where they ſpend their ſummer evenings, and different families aſſociate together. The royal ſquare is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth, and we are told, that the royal palace with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Iſpahan 160 moſques, 180 caravanſeras, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine ſquares, ſtreets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to ſhade and better accommodate the people. This capital is ſaid formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, ſo that we may eaſily ſuppoſe, that it has loſt great part of its antient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houſes were inhabited.

Schiras lies about 200 miles to the ſouth of Aſtracan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpreſſibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and wines of which are incomparable. The vines of Schiras are reckoned the beſt in any in Perſia. This town is the capital of Fars, the antient Perſia, and contains a kind of college for the ſtudy of eaſtern learning. It contains an uncommon number of moſques, is adorned by many noble buildings, but its ſtreets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houſes are inhabited.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Perſian Gulph, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The Engliſh, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Perſians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which ſet out from various inland cities of Aſia, under the convoy of guards.

MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.] I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the ſame all over the Mahometan countries.

Moſques are religious buildings, ſquare, and generally of ſtone: before the chief gate there is a ſquare court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whoſe roof is ſupported by marble pillars. Thoſe galleries ſerve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the moſque. About every moſque there are ſix high towers, called minarets

inarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding, and other ornaments; and from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque, nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days, and the tomb of the founder, with conveniencies for reading the Koran, and praying for the souls of the deceased.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well contrusted for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white well polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he was dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon, when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest cloaths.

I might here attempt to describe the eastern seraglios or harams, the women's apartments; but from the most credible accounts, they are contrived according to the taste and convenience of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments, which are seldom or never entered by strangers; and there is no country where the women are so strictly guarded and confined as among the great men in Persia.

[MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in silk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these, join fancy, taste and elegance, richness, neatness, and shew, and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse furniture are not to be excelled, nor are they ignorant of the pottery, and window glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsey workmen, and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often seize either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That between the English, and other nations, by the gulph of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had, but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in, have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Petersburgh is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians; but nothing can be said with certainty on that

head, till the government of Perſia is in a more ſettled condition than is at preſent.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both theſe are extremely precarious, as reſting in the breaſt of a deſpotic and often capricious monarch. The Perſians however had ſome fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindneſs likewiſe was a diſqualification for the royal ſucceſſion. In other reſpects the king's will was a law for the people. The inſtances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practiſed by the Mahometan kings of Perſia, are almoſt incredible, eſpecially during the two laſt centuries. The reaſon given to the Chriſtian ambaſſadors by Shah Abbas, the greateſt and moſt polite among them, was, that the Perſians were ſuch brutes, and ſo inſenſible by nature, that they could not be governed, without the exerciſe of exemplary cruelties. The favourites of the prince, female, as well as male, are his only counſellors, and the ſmalleſt diſobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Perſians have no degrees of nobility, ſo that the reſpect due to every man, on account of his high ſtation, expires with himſelf. The king has been known to prefer a younger ſon to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The crown claims one-third of the cattle, corn and fruits of his ſubjects, and likewiſe a third of ſilk and cotton. No rank or condition of Perſians, is exempted from ſevere taxations and ſervices. The governors of provinces have particular lands aſſigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops, and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's houſhold, and great officers of ſtate; and ſaying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Perſian kings, or as they are called Sophis, were prodigious, but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty in the preſent diſtracted ſtate of the country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is ſubject to a tax, and foreigners who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This conſiſted formerly of cavalry, and is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of the century, however, their kings have raiſed bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but according to the modern hiſtories of Perſia, they are eaſily recruited in caſe of a defeat. The Perſians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ſhips of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy, but ſince his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Perſian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the riſing ſun. His title is *Shah, or the Diſpoſer of Kingdoms.* Shah, or Khan, and Sultan, which he aſſumes likewiſe, are Tartar titles. To acts of ſtate the Perſian monarch does not ſubſcribe his name, but the grant runs in this manner, viz. This act is given by him whom the univerſe obeys.

HISTORY.] All ancient hiſtorians mention the Perſian monarchy in their grandeur, and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here ſufficient to ſay, that the Perſian empire ſucceeded the Aſſyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Chriſt; and reſtored the Iſraelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the perſon of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Chriſt. When Alexander

mpire was divided among his great general officers, their poſterity were onquered by the Romans. Theſe laſt, however, never fully ſubdued erſia, and the natives had princes of their own, who more than once efeated the Roman legions. The ſucceſſors of thoſe princes ſurvived e Roman empire itſelf, but were ſubdued by the famous Tamerlane, hoſe poſterity were ſupplanted by a doctor of law, the anceſtor of the ophi family, and pretended to be deſcended from Mahomet himſelf. is ſucceſſors, though ſome of them were valiant and politic, proved in neral to be a diſgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and dolence, which brought them into ſuch diſrepute with their ſubjects, rbarous as they were, that Haſſein, a prince of the Sophi race, who ceeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, ſon and ſucceſſor to the mous Miriweis; as Mahmud himſelf was by Eſref, one of his general ficers, who uſurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the repreſentative the Sophi family, had eſcaped from the rebels, and aſſembling an my, took into his ſervice Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Eſref, d re-annexed to the Perſian monarchy all the places diſmembered om it by the Turks and Tartars during the late rebellion. At laſt e ſecret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after aſſuming the name Tahmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his ſervices were not ſufficiently rewarded, he rebelled againſt his ſovereign, made him a priſoner, and, it is ſuppoſed, put him to death.

This uſurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah dir. The hiſtory of his expedition into Indoſtan, and the amazing oty he made there, has been treated of in the deſcription of that untry. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconſiderable rt of his booty from India, loſing great part of it upon his return the Marattas and accidents. He next conquered Uſbec Tartary; but not ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Dagheſtan Tartars, whoſe country found to be inacceſſible. He beat the Turks in ſeveral engagements, t was unable to take Bagdat. The great principle of his governnt was to ſtrike terror into all his ſubjects by the moſt cruel executns. His conduct became ſo intolerable, that it was thought his brain touched; and he was aſſaſſinated in his own tent, partly in ſelfence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. ny pretenders, upon his death, ſtarted up; but the fortunate candie was Kerim Khan, who was crowned at Tauris in 1763, and, acding to the lateſt accounts, ſtill keeps poſſeſſion of the throne.

ARABIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1300, Breadth 1200	between	35 and 60 eaſt longitude. 12 and 30 north latitude.

OUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Turkey on the north; by the gulphs of Perſia or Baſſora, and Ormus, which rate it from Perſia, on the eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, ſouth; and Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the weſt.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.	— — —	Suez, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle.	Haggiaz or Mecca	Mecca, E. lon. 41. N. lat. 21-45.
		Siden
		Medina
	Tehama — —	Dhafar
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	Mocho — —	Mocho, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-40.
		Sibit
	Hadramut — —	Hadramut
	Casseen — —	Casseen
	Segur — — —	Segur
	Oman or Muscat —	Muscat
	Jamama — —	Jamama
	Bahara — —	Elcalf.

Name.] It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its antient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the Desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandize pass thro' the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

Mountains.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, east of the Red-Sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

Rivers, seas, gulphs, and capes.] There are few fountains, springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red-Sea, the gulphs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

Climate, air, soil, and produce.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the Torrid Zone, and the Tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessive dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains, by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracts, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures cloathed with flocks, nor vallies standing thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome desolate wilderness, no otherways diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. The southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea coast, produce balm of

Gilead

Gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, frankincenſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a ſmall quantity of corn and wine. But this country is moſt famous for its coffee and its dates, which laſt are found ſcarce any where in ſuch perfection as here and in Perſia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The moſt uſeful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by providence for traverſing the dry and parched deſerts of this country, for they are ſo formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their ſtomach into their throat, by which means they can travel ſix or eight days without water. The camels uſually carry 800 weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to reſt, and in due time riſe with their load. The dromedary is a ſmall camel that will travel many miles a day. It is an obſervation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will ſmell it at a diſtance, and ſet up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horſes are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of thoſe in England. They are only fit for the ſaddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their ſwiftneſs and high mettle.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS.] The Arabians, like moſt of the nations of Aſia, are of a middle ſtature, thin, and of a ſwarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are ſwift of foot, excellent horſemen, and are ſaid to be a brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, ſince they became acquainted with fire-arms, good markſmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks, and herds, as they have ever done ſince they became a nation.

The Arabians in general are ſuch thieves by nature, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations through motives of devotion or curioſity, are ſtruck with terror on their approaches towards the Deſerts. Thoſe robbers, headed by a captain, traverſe the country in conſiderable troops on horſeback, aſſault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that ſo late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 perſons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though eſcorted by a Turkiſh army. On the ſea coaſt they are mere pirates, and make prize of every veſſel they can maſter of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue ſhirt, tied about them with a white ſaſh or girdle; and ſome of them have a veſt of furs or ſheep-ſkins over it; they alſo wear drawers, and ſometimes ſlippers, but no ſtockings; and have a cap or turban on their heads. Many of them go almoſt naked; but, as in the eaſtern countries, the women are ſo wrapped up, that nothing can be diſcerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of fleſh, except that of hogs; and prefer the fleſh of camels, as we prefer veniſon, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the fleſh, as the Jews do, and like them refuſe ſuch fiſh as have no ſcales. Coffee and tea, water, and ſherbet made of oranges water and ſugar, is their uſual drink; they have no ſtrong liquors.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following hiſtory of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are ſtill pagans, but the people in general profeſs Mahometaniſm.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and ſkill in all the liberal arts, there is ſcarce a country at preſent where the people are ſo univerſally ignorant. The vulgar language uſed in the three Arabias is the Arabeſk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewiſe ſpoken, with ſome variation of dialect, over great part of the Eaſt, from Egypt to the court of the great mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is ſaid to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the Eaſt accounted the richeſt, moſt energic and copious language in the world, is taught in their ſchools, as Greek and Latin is amongſt the Europeans, and uſed by Mahometans in their worſhip; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not ſuffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to have been the language of Paradiſe, and think no man can be maſter of it without a miracle, as conſiſting of ſeveral millions of words. The books which treat of it ſay, thay have no fewer than a 1000 terms to expreſs the word *camel*, and 500 for that of a *lion*. The Pater-noſter in the Arabic is as follows.

Abuna elladhi ſi-ſſamwat; jetkaddas eſmâc; tati malacutac: tanwi maſchiatac, cama ſi-ſſama; kedhalec ala lardh aating chobzena kefafna iaum beiaum; wagfer lena donubena, wachataina, cama nogfer nachna lemen aca doina; walâ tadalhchalna ſi-hajarib; laken mejjina me-nſcherir. Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, AND ARTS.] What is called the Deſert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain near nine miles long and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-eaſt, but to the ſouthward is cloſed by ſome of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make ſuch encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each ſo capacious as to be ſufficient to receive the whole camp of the Iſraelites.

From Mount Sinai may be ſeen Mount Horeb, where Moſes kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he ſaw the burning buſh. On thoſe mountains are many chapels and cells, poſſeſſed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jeruſalem, pretend to ſhew the very ſpot where every miracle or tranſaction recorded in ſcripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocho, Aden, Muſchat and Sana, where moſt of the trade of this country is carried on; but thoſe of Mecca, which is the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deſerve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a moſque ſo glorious that it is generally counted the moſt magnificent of any temple in the Turkiſh dominions: its lofty roof being raiſed in faſhion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conſpicuous at a great diſtance. The moſque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the fineſt gildings and tapeſtry. The number of pilgrims who yearly viſit this place is almoſt incredible, every muſſulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his life time, or ſend a deputy.

At Medina, about 50 miles from the Red-Sea, the city to which Ma-
homet

omet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he as buried, is a ſtately moſque, ſupported by 420 pillars, and furniſhed ith 300 ſilver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the oſt Holy by the Turks, becauſe in it is placed the coffin of their ophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of ſilver ſſue, which the baſhaw of Egypt, by order of the grand ſignior, renews ery year. The camel which carries it derives a ſort of ſanctity from , and is never to be uſed in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot f the coffin is a rich golden creſcent, ſo curiouſly wrought, and adorned ith precious ſtones, that it is eſteemed a maſter-piece of great value. hither the pilgrims reſort, as to Mecca, but not in ſuch numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the govern- ent of many petty princes, who are ſtiled xerifs and imans, both of em including the offices of king and prieſt, in the ſame manner as e califs of the Saracens, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet. Theſe monarchs ppear to be abſolute, both in ſpirituals and temporals; the ſucceſſion hereditary, and they have no other laws than thoſe found in the Koran, nd the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe ſubjection to the urks, and are governed by baſhaws reſiding among them; but it is cer- in they receive large gratuities from the grand ſignior for protecting he pilgrims that paſs through their country from the robberies of their ountrymen. The Arabians have no ſtanding regular militia, but the ings command both the perſons and the purſes of their ſubjects as the eceſſity of affairs require.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of this country in ſome meaſure differs from hat of all others: for as the ſlavery and ſubjection of other nations ake a great part of their hiſtory, that of the Arabs is entirely com- oſed of their conqueſts or independence. The Arabs are deſcended of ſmael, of whoſe poſterity it was foretold, that they ſhould be invincible, have their hands againſt every man, and every man's hands againſt eirs." They are at preſent, and have remained from the remoteſt ges, during the various conqueſts of the Greeks, Romans, and Tar- rs, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Toward e north, and the ſea-coaſts of Arabia, indeed the inhabitants are kept awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the ſouthern and in- nd parts, acknowledge themſelves for ſubjects of no foreign power, nd do not fail to harraſs and annoy all ſtrangers who come into their ountry. The conqueſt of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their iſtory, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued enjoy. Theſe, as well as their religion, began with one man, whoſe haracter forms a very ſingular phenomenon in the hiſtory of mankind. his was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that divi- on of Arabia, which, for the luxuriancy of its ſoil, and happy tempe- ature of its climate, has ever been eſteemed the loveliеſt and ſweeteſt gion of the world, and is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of Happy. He as born in the ſixth century, in the reign of Juſtinian XI. emperor of onſtantinople. Though deſcended of mean parentage, illiterate and oor, Mahomet was endowed with a ſubtile genius, like thoſe of the me country, and poſſeſſed an enterprize and ambition peculiar to him- lf, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the rly part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occa- on, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt. He as afterwards taken into the ſervice of a rich merchant, upon whoſe death

death he married his widow Cadiga, and by her means came to b
poſſeſſed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregri
nations into Egypt and the Eaſt, he had obſerved the vaſt variety of ſect
in religion, whoſe hatred againſt each other was ſtrong and inveterate,
while at the ſame time there were many particulars in which the greate
part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of theſe particulars,
by means of which, and by addreſſing himſelf to the love of power,
riches, and pleaſure, paſſions univerſal among men, he expected to rai
a new ſyſtem of religion, more general than any which hitherto had bee
eſtabliſhed. In this deſign he was aſſiſted by a Sergian monk, whoſe li
bertine diſpoſition had made him forſake his cloyſter and profeſſion, and
engage in the ſervice of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domeſt
when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly quali
fied, by his great learning, for ſupplying the defects which his maſte
for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in a
probability, muſt have obſtructed the execution of his deſign. It w
neceſſary, however, that the religion they propoſed to eſtabliſh ſhould have
divine ſanction; and for this purpoſe Mahomet turned a calamity, wi
which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often ſubject to fits of t
epilepſy, a diſeaſe which thoſe whom it afflicts are deſirous to conceal
Mahomet gave out therefore that theſe fits were trances, into which h
was miraculouſly thrown by God Almighty, and during which he w
inſtructed in his will, which he was commanded to publiſh to t
world. By this ſtrange ſtory, and by living a retired, abſtemious, an
auſtere life, he eaſily acquired a character for ſuperior ſanctity amon
his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himſelf ſufficientl
fortified by the numbers and enthuſiaſm of his followers, he boldly de
clared himſelf a prophet, ſent by God into the world, not only to teac
his will, but to compel mankind to obey it. As we have already men
tioned, he did not lay the foundation of his ſyſtem ſo narrow as onl
to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rud
and enthuſiaſtic, was enlarged by travelling into diſtant lands, whe
manners and religion he had made a peculiar ſtudy. He propoſed th
the ſyſtem he eſtabliſhed ſhould extend over all the neighbouring nation
to whoſe doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Th
eaſtern countries were at this time ſtrongly infected with the here
of Arius, who allowed the prophetic office, but denied the divinity o
Jeſus Chriſt. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fle
into theſe corners of the world from the perſecution of the empe
Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The ot
inhabitants of theſe countries were pagans. Theſe, however, had li
attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and like men wh
religious principle is weak, had given themſelves over to pleaſure an
ſenſuality, or to the acquiſition of riches, in order to be the better ab
to indulge in the gratification of ſenſe, which, together with the doctrin
of predeſtination, compoſed the ſole principles of their religion and phi
loſophy. Mahomet's ſyſtem was exactly ſuited to theſe three kinds of me
To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, wh
created the world and governed all things in it; that he had ſent variou
prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom
Moſes and Jeſus Chriſt were the moſt eminent; but the endeavours o
theſe had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now ſent his la
and greateſt prophet, with a commiſſion more ample than what Moſes or
Chri

rift had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to blish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or ey them; and for this end to establish a kingdom upon earth which uld propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had signed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to subn it him; but to his faithful followers, had given the spoils and possessions all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them reafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; t the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith, would be pe-liarly intense, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, together th the prohibition of drinking strong liquors (a restraint not very severe warm climates) and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital ticles of Mahomet's creed. They were no sooner published, than a t many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They re written by the priest we formerly mentioned, and compose a book lled the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, ich means The Book. The person of Mahomet, however, was fami-r to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were ficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading en entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Talmachi, or the y of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, accord-g to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina re-ived him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 2d year of Christ, the 44th year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of s ministry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the ra is called in Arabic, Hegira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomet, by the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of hers whom his insinuation and address daily attached to him, brought er all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an acquiescence in his octrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians as a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and e East, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews and Gentiles, l forsook their antient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the ntagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahomet, om a deceitful hypocrite, became the most powerful monarch in his me. He died in 629, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed vine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of gypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of ese turned their arms to the East, and made conquests of many countries. he caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, d under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained because ey entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the loors) reduced most of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Me-terranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion d conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and cy still give law to a very considerable part of mankind.

The INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS are,

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, which together form what has been called the empire of Japan, and are governed by a moſt deſpotic prince who is ſometimes called emperor and ſometimes king. They are ſituated about 150 miles eaſt of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41 degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of eaſt longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141ſt degree of eaſt longitude, and the 36th of north latitude. The ſoil and productions of the country are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacquer ware, known by the name of Japan. The iſlands themſelves are very inacceſſible, through their high rocks and tempeſtuous ſeas; they are ſubject to earthquakes, and have ſome volcanos. I have already mentioned the circumſtance of the Dutch expelling the Portugueze from this gainful trade. The Japaneſe themſelves are the groſſeſt of all idolators, and ſo irreconcilable to Chriſtianity, that it is commonly ſaid the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themſelves to be no Chriſtians, and humour the Japaneſe in the moſt abſurd ſuperſtitions. Notwithſtanding all this compliance, the natives are very ſhy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch, and Nangazal, in the iſland of Ximo, is the only place where they are ſuffered to trade. Authors pretend to give us very particular accounts of the inhabitants, cuſtoms, and manners of thoſe iſlanders, their ſoil, commodities, and trade; but their information conveys little inſtruction, and the whole ſubſiſts on a precarious foundation. All we know for certain is, that notwithſtanding their ſuperſtition and ignorance, the natives are a moſt induſtrious penetrating people; that they excel the Chineſe themſelves in the manufactures that are common to both countries, and at leaſt equal them in huſbandry and the arts of life.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is ſaid to be Guam, eaſt longitude 140, north latitude 14; they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, excepting that lord Anſon landed upon one of them (Tinian) where he found great refreſhment for himſelf and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewiſe an oriental iſland. It is ſituated to the eaſt of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the ſouth coaſt, and ending at the north. This is a very fine iſland, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life. That part of the iſland which lies to the weſt of the mountains belongs to the Chineſe, who conſider the inhabitants of its eaſtern part as ſavages, though they are ſaid to be a very inoffenſive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the ſame with the Chineſe already deſcribed. The Chineſe have likewiſe made themſelves maſters of ſeveral other iſlands in theſe ſeas, of which we ſcarcely know the names; that of Ainan, is between 60 and 70 leagues long, and between 50 and 60 in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a ſhy, cowardly people, and live in the moſt unwholeſome part of the iſland; the coaſt and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being poſſeſſed by the Chineſe.

The PHILIPPINES, of which there are 1100 in number, lying in the hineſe ſea, (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of China, which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long, and 200 oad. The inhabitants conſiſt of Chineſe, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaards, Portugueze, Pintudos, or painted people, and Meſtes, a mixture all theſe. The property of the iſlands belong to the king of Spain, ey having been diſcovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by e Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. heir ſituation is ſuch, between the eaſtern and weſtern continents, that e inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as all the iſlands and aces of the Eaſt-Indies. Two ſhips from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. he country is fruitful in all the neceſſaries of life, and beautiful to the e. Veniſon of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, ſheep, goats, and a partilar large ſpecies of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The eſt of the bird ſaligan affords that diſſolving jelly which is ſo voluptuous rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive rprizingly in thoſe iſlands. If a ſprig of an orange or lemon tree is lanted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; ſo that the erdure and luxuriancy of the ſoil is almoſt incredible. The tree amet pplies the natives with water; and there is alſo a kind of cane, which cut yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in e mountains, where water is moſt wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the diſtance of three leagues, and defended by the caſtle of t. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the Engliſh under eneral Draper and admiral Corniſh, who took it by ſtorm, and humanely ſuffered the archbiſhop, who was the Spaniſh viceroy at the ſame me, to ranſom the place for about a million ſterling. The bargain, owever, was ungenerouſly diſowned by him and the court of Spain, ſo hat great part of the ranſom is ſtill unpaid. The Spaniſh government ſettled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The ther iſlands, particularly Mindanao, the largeſt next to Manilla, are goerned by petty princes of their own, whom they call ſultans. The ſultan Mindanao is a Mahometan.

Upon the whole, though theſe iſlands are enriched with all the profuon of nature, yet they are ſubject to moſt dreadful earthquakes, thunder, ains, and lightning; and the ſoil is peſtered with many noxious and enomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whoſe poiſons kill almoſt ſtantaneouſly. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS. Theſe are not out of ſight of each other, and lie all within the compaſs of 5 leagues to the ſouth of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of eaſt longiude, and between one degree ſouth, and two north latitude. They are in umber five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. Thoſe lands produce neither corn nor rice, ſo that the inhabitants live upon bread made of ſagoe. Their chief produce conſiſts of cloves, mace, nd nutmegs, in vaſt quantities, which are monopolized by the Dutch ith ſo much jealouſy, that they deſtroy the plants leſt the natives ſhould ell the ſupernumerary ſpices to other nations. Thoſe iſlands, after being ubject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, ſubordinate o the Dutch. The latter, however, if at war with England, might be aſily diſpoſſeſſed, and their poſſeſſion of them at this time is precarious,

when they differ with thoſe princes. Ternate is the largeſt of thoſe iſlands, though no more than 30 miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria, and another, called Fort Orange, in Machiam.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are ſituated between 127 and 128 degrees eaſt longitude, and between four and five ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Lantor, the chief town of which is Lantor, Poleron, Roſinging, Pooloway and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on thoſe iſlands, are thoſe of Revenge and Naſſau. The nutmeg, covered with the mace, grows on thoſe iſlands only, and they are entirely ſubject to the Dutch. In ſeveral iſlands that lie near Banda and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, becauſe, as naturaliſts tell us, birds, eſpecially doves and pigeons, ſwallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the ſame ſtate; which is one of the reaſons why the Dutch declare war againſt both birds and their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harveſt is in June and Auguſt.

AMBOYNA. This iſland, taken in a large ſenſe, is one, and the moſt conſiderable, of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is ſituated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degree of ſouth latitude, and 120 leagues to the eaſtward of Batavia. Amboyna is about 70 miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garriſon of 7 or 800 men, beſides ſmall forts, who protect their clove plantations. It is well known that when the Portugueze were driven off this iſland, the trade of it was carried on by the Engliſh and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter in firſt torturing and then murdering the Engliſh, and thereby engroſſing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten, for it muſt be tranſmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy to all poſterity. This tragical event happened in 1622, and is ſtill unrevenged.

The iſland of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is ſituated under the equator, between the iſland of Borneo and the Spice Iſlands, at the diſtance of 120 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This iſland, notwithſtanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the ſtudy of poiſons, with a variety of which nature has furniſhed them. The Dutch have a fortification on this iſland, but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom reſides in the town of Macaſſar. In this, and indeed in almoſt all the Oriental iſlands, the inhabitants live in houſes built on large poſts, which are acceſſible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their ſecurity againſt venomous animals. They are ſaid to be hoſpitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chineſe; and if their chiefs were not perpetually at war with each other, they might eaſily drive the Dutch from their iſland. Their port of Jampoden is the moſt capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewiſe fortified GILOLO and CERAM, two other ſpice iſlands lying under the equator, and will ſink any ſhips that attempt to traffic in thoſe ſeas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. Theſe are ſituated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between eight degrees north and eight degrees ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lambo, Banca, &c. The three firſt, from their great extent and importance, require to be ſeparately deſcribed.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long and 700 broad, and is there-
e thought to be the largeſt iſland in the world. The inland part of
country is marſhy and unhealthy, and the inhabitants live in towns
ilt upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The ſoil produces rice,
ton, canes, pepper, camphire, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent
monds. The famous ourang-outang, one of which was diſſected by
Tyſon at Oxford, is a native of this country, and is thought of all
tional beings, to reſemble a man the moſt. The original inhabitants
ſaid to live in the mountains, and make uſe of poiſoned darts, but
ſea coaſt is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of the
nd is Benjar-Maſſeen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the eaſt, and
a on the ſouth-eaſt, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtraits of Sunda;
is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five de-
es, and upwards, north-weſt of it, and five on the ſouth-eaſt; and
1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This iſland produces ſo much
ld, that it is thought to be the Ophir mentioned in the ſcrip-
es; but its chief trade with the Europeans lies in pepper. The Eng-
East-India company have two ſettlements here, Bencoolen and
rt-Marlborough, from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper.
e king of Achen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who poſſeſs
e ſea coaſts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and
e natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of
e adjacent iſlands.

The greateſt part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected
kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble
d populous city, lying in the latitude of ſix degrees ſouth, at the
outh of the river Jucata, and furniſhed with one of the fineſt harbours
the world. The town itſelf is built in the manner of thoſe in Hol-
nd, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates,
d ſurrounded by regular fortifications; but its ſuburbs are ſaid to be
times more populous than itſelf. The government here is a mixture
Eaſtern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch
vernor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended
his guards and officers, and with a ſplendor ſuperior to that of any
ropean potentate, excepting upon ſolemn occaſions. The city is as
autiful as it is ſtrong, and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render
a moſt agreeable reſidence. The deſcription of it, its government,
d public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where
e governor has his palace, commands the town and the ſuburbs, which
e inhabited by natives of almoſt every nation in the world; the Chineſe
iding in this iſland being computed at 100,000; but about 3[illegible],000 of
at nation were barbarouſly maſſacred, without the ſmalleſt offence that
er was proved upon them, in 1740. This maſſacre was too unprovoked
d deteſtable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor
rived in Europe, ſent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never
s been heard of ſince. A Dutch garriſon of 3000 men conſtantly
ides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the iſland
d the neighbourhood of the city. Their government is admirably well
lculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military
wer; and England itſelf would find it difficult to ſhake that republican
mpire.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR iſlands. Theſe iſlands lie at the
entrance

entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furniſh proviſions, conſiſting of t pical fruits and other neceſſaries, for the ſhips that touch there. T are otherwiſe too inconſiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabi by a harmleſs, inoffenſive, but idolatrous people.

CEYLON. This iſland, though not the largeſt, is thought to be nature the richeſt and fineſt iſland in the world. It is ſituated in the dian ocean, near cape Comorin, the ſouthernmoſt extremity of the Hin Peninſula of India, being ſeparated from the coaſt of Coromandel by narrow ſtrait, and is 250 miles long and 200 broad. The natives call with ſome ſhew of reaſon, the terreſtrial paradiſe; and it produces, beſi excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, ſilk, tobac ebony, muſk, cryſtal, ſalt-petre, ſulphur, lead, iron, ſteel, copper, b ſides cinnamon, gold, and ſilver, and all kinds of precious ſtones, exc diamonds. All kinds of fowls and fiſh abound here. Every part of iſland is well wooded and watered, and beſides ſome curious animals pe liar to itſelf, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, ha dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to others, eſpecially if ſpotted; but ſeveral noxious animals, ſuch as ſerp and ants, are likewiſe found here. The chief commodity of the iſla however, is its cinnamon, which is by far the beſt in all Aſia. Tho its trees grow in great profuſion, yet the beſt is found in the neighb hood of Columbo, the chief ſettlement of the Dutch, and Negan The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, ſo that the n and beautiful vallies are left in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, who hav a manner ſhut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which ſtands o mountain in the middle of the iſland, ſo that he has ſcarcely any comm cation with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own do nions. The deſcendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cingha who, though idolaters, value themſelves upon maintaining their anci laws and cuſtoms. They are in general a ſober inoffenſive people, and mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portugueze, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to obſerve, that the cinnamon-tree, which native of this iſland, has two, if not three barks, which form the cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the b and the body of the tree, which when ſtripped is white, ſerves building and other uſes. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the nati of this delicious iſland, to defend them againſt the Portugueze, whom t expelled, and have monopolized it ever ſince to themſelves.

The MALDIVES. Theſe are a vaſt cluſter of ſmall iſlands or i rocks juſt above the water, lying between the equator and eight deg north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly reſorted to by Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for cowries, kind of ſmall ſhells, which go, or rather formerly went for money the coaſts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the M dives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity: "of this "(ſays a well-informed author) they build veſſels of 20 or 30 tons; "hulls, maſts, ſails, rigging, anchors, cables, proviſions, and firing, "from this uſeful tree."

The other iſlands in Aſia, are thoſe of KAMSCHATKA, and KURILE ISLES in the eaſtern or Pacific ocean, many of them diſcovered by the Ruſſians, and but little known. We have already tioned BOMBAY on the Malabar coaſt, in ſpeaking of India.

With regard to the language of all the Oriental iſlands, nothing certain n be ſaid. Each iſland has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, hineſe, Portugueze, Dutch, and Indian words are ſo frequent among em, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in thoſe atters, to know the radical language. The ſame may be almoſt ſaid of eir religion, for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is inter-ixed with many Jewiſh, Chriſtian, Mahometan, and other foreign ſuper-tions.

AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third grand diviſion of the globe, is generally repre-ſented as bearing ſome reſemblance to the form of a pyramid, the ſe being the northern part of it, which runs along the ſhores of the editerranean, and the point or top of the pyramid, the cape of Good-ope. Africa is a peninſula of a prodigious extent, joined to Aſia only a neck of land, about 60 miles over, between the Red-Sea and the editerranean, uſually called the Iſthmus of Suez, and its utmoſt length om north to ſouth, from cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 deg. to the cape of Good-Hope in 34-7 ſouth lat. is 4300 miles; and the oadeſt part from cape Verd in 17-20 deg. W. to cape Guarda-fui near the aits of Babel-Mandel in 51-20 E. long. is 3500 miles from eaſt to weſt. is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea, which ſeparates it om Europe; on the eaſt by the Iſthmus of Suez, the Red-Sea, and the dian ocean, which divides it from Aſia; on the ſouth by the ſouthern ean; and on the weſt by the great Atlantic ocean, which ſeparates it om America. As the equator divides this extenſive country almoſt in e middle, and the far greateſt part of it is within the tropics, the heat in many places almoſt inſupportable to an European; it being there eatly increaſed by the rays of the ſun from vaſt deſerts of burning ſands. he coaſts, however, and banks of rivers, ſuch as the Nile, are generally tile; and moſt parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from ing ſo populous as Europe or Aſia. From what has been ſaid, the der cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of rica, ſnow ſeldom falls in the plains: and it is generally never found, t on the tops of the higheſt mountains. The natives, in theſe ſcorching gions, would as ſoon expect that marble ſhould melt, and flow in liquid eams, as that water by freezing ſhould loſe its fluidity, be arreſted by e cold, and ceaſing to flow become like the ſolid rock.

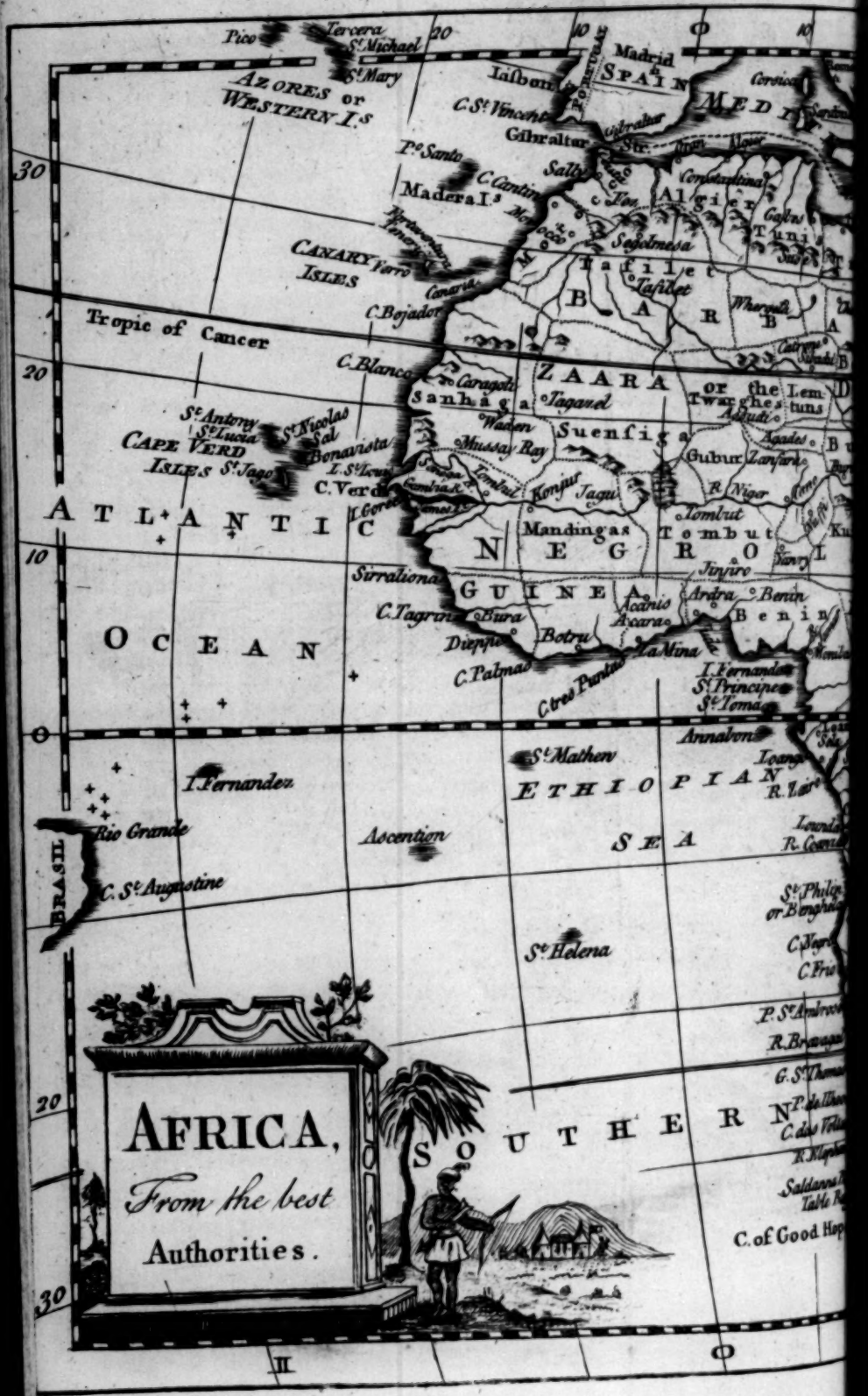
The moſt conſiderable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into e Atlantic or weſtern ocean at Senegal, after a courſe of 2800 miles. increaſes and decreaſes as the Nile, fertiliſes the country, and has grains gold in many parts of it. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches this river. The Nile, which dividing Egypt into two parts, diſcharges lf into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious courſe from its ſource in yſſinia. The moſt conſiderable mountains in Africa, are the Atlas, dge extending from the weſtern ocean, to which it gives the name of lantic ocean, as far as Egypt, and had its name from a king of Mau-ania, a great lover of aſtronomy, who uſed to obſerve the ſtars from ſummit, on which account the poets repreſent him as bearing the

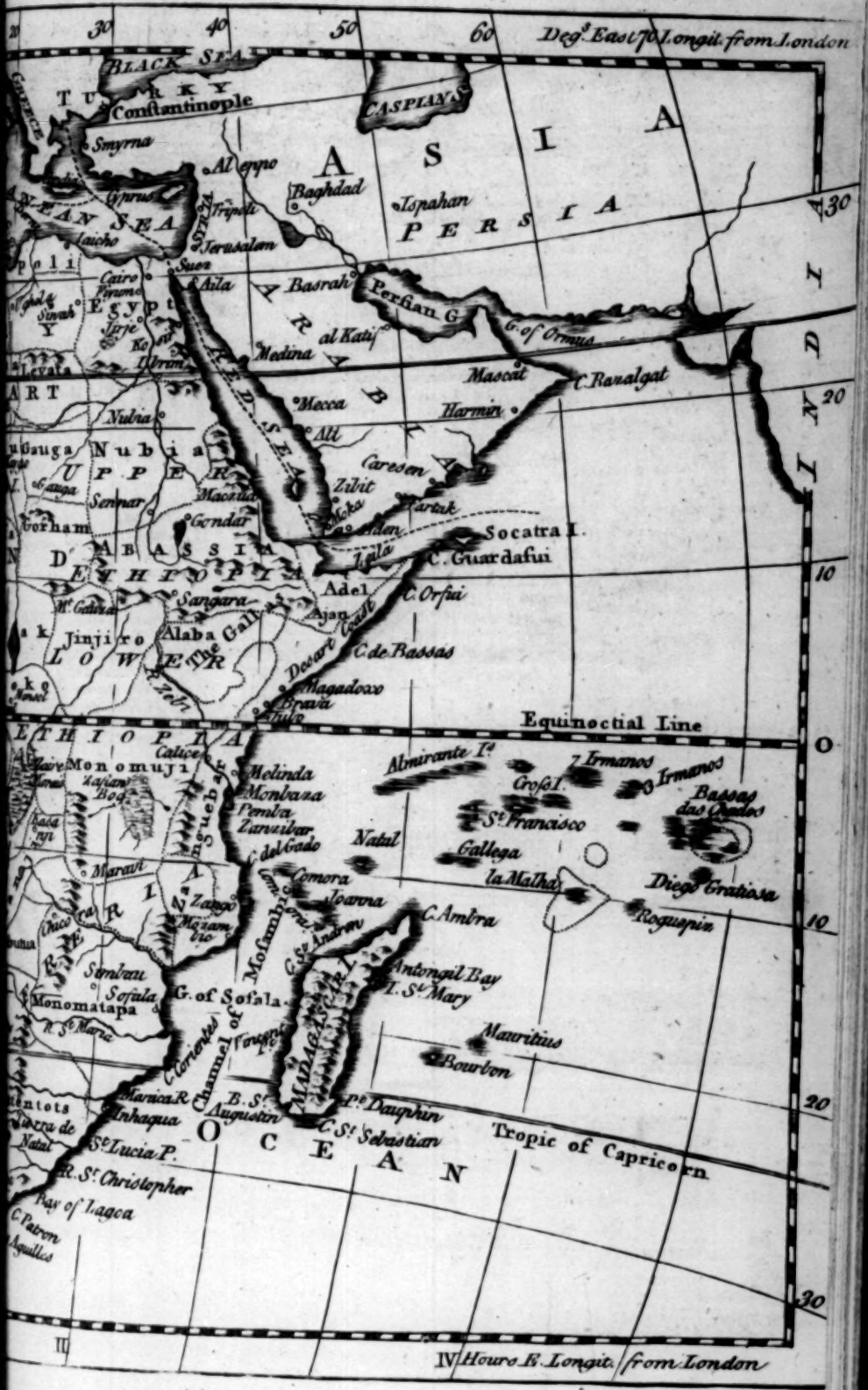
heavens on his ſhoulders. The mountains of the Moon, extending themſelves between Abyſſinia and Monopotapa, and are ſtill higher than thoſe of Atlas. Thoſe of Sierra Leona, or the mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. Theſe were ſtiled by the antients, the Mountains of God, on account of their being ſubject to thunder and lightning. The pike of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their firſt meridian, is ſaid to be three miles high in the form of a ſugar-loaf, and is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name near the coaſt. The moſt noted capes, or promontories, in this country, are Cape Verd, ſo called, becauſe the land is always covered with green trees and moſſy ground. It is the moſt weſterly point of the continent of Africa. The cape of Good Hope, ſo denominated by the Portugueze when they firſt went round it in 1498, and diſcovered the paſſage to Aſia. It is the ſouth extremity of Africa, the country of the Hottentots; and at preſent in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ſhips of every nation, who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one ſtreight in Africa, which is called Babel Mandel, and joins the Red-Sea with the Indian ocean.

The ſituation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, ſtanding as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the reſt. That it abounds with gold, we have not on the teſtimony of the Portugueze, the Dutch, the Engliſh, and the French who have ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, but that of the most authentic hiſtorians. It is however the misfortune of Africa, which, tho it has 10,000 miles of ſea coaſt, with noble, large, deep rivers, penetrating into the very centre of the country, it ſhould have no navigation nor receive any benefit from them; that it ſhould be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of theſe rivers are the moſt excellent harbours, deep, ſafe, calm and ſheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly ſecure by fortifications; but quite deſtitute of ſhipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandize. In ſhort, Africa, though a fifth quarter of the globe, ſtored with an inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable under proper improvements, of producing ſo many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itſelf, ſeems to be almoſt entirely neglected not only by the natives, who are quite unſollicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but alſo by the more civilized Europeans, who are ſettled in it, particularly the Portugueze.

Africa once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the moſt extenſive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful ſtate of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itſelf, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the Britiſh ſhores were viſited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who with the aſſiſtance of the Mauritanians, ſubdued Carthage, and by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and ſtates. After this the natives, conſtantly plundered, and conſequently impoveriſhed, by the governors ſent from Rome, neglected their trade and cultivated no more of their lands than might ſerve for their ſubſiſtence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed much more to the deſtruction of arts and ſciences; and, to add to this calamity,

F578


AFRICA,
From the best
Authorities.
AZORES or WESTERN Is
CANARY ISLES
CAPE VERD ISLES
Tropic of Cancer
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ZAARA or the Lemtuns
Suensiga
Mandingas
NEGRO
GUINEA
ETHIOPIAN SEA
SOUTHERN
BARBARY
Madrid
SPAIN
Lisbon
Gibraltar
Algier
Tunis
Tripoli
Tafilet
Fez
Morocco
Suez
Rio Grande
Ascention
St Helena
C. of Good Hope
BRASIL
T. Kitchin Sculpsit.


Degs East from London
BLACK SEA
TURKY
Constantinople
CASPIAN S.
ASIA
Smyrna
Aleppo
Baghdad
Ispahan
PERSIA
Cyprus
Tripoli
Jerusalem
Suez
Cairo
Egypt
Aila
Basrah
Persian G.
G. of Ormus
Medina
al Katif
Mascat
C. Ranalgat
Mecca
Harmin
Nubia
Abex
Caresen
Zibit
Socatra I.
Gondar
Aden
C. Guardafui
Adel
C. Orfui
Sangara
Ajan
Alaba
C. de Bassas
Magadoxo
Equinoctial Line
Monomuji
Melinda
Mombaza
Pemba
Zanzibar
Almiranta Is.
7 Irmanos
3 Irmanos
Gros I.
Bassas da Candos
St. Francisco
Natal
Gallega
la Malha
Diego Grahosa
Comora
Joanna
C. Ambra
Roguepin
Antongil Bay
I. St. Mary
G. of Sofala
Sofala
Monomatapa
Mauritius
Bourbon
Inhaqua
B. St. Augustin
Pte Dauphin
C. St. Sebastian
Tropic of Capricorn
OCEAN
St. Lucia P.
R. St. Christopher
Bay of Lagoa
C. Patron Aguilles
IV Houre E. Longit. from London

calamity, the Saracens made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſts of Egypt and Barbary, in the ſeventh century. Theſe were ſucceeded by the Turks, and both being of the Mahometan religion, whoſe profeſſors carried deſolation with them, wherever they came, the ruin of that once flouriſhing part of the world, was thereby compleated.

The inhabitants of this continent, with reſpect to religion, may be divided into three ſorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the moſt numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer, to the cape of Good-Hope, and theſe are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs Egypt, and almoſt all the northern ſhores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coaſt. The people of Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain many Pagan and Jewiſh rites. There are alſo ſome Jews, on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is poſſeſſed of.

There are ſcarce any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned that agree in the modern diviſions of Africa; and for this very reaſon, that ſcarce any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country, and conſequently we muſt acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of ſeveral of the inland nations, which may be ſtill reckoned among the unknown, and undiſcovered parts of the world; but according to the beſt accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table.

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.	Diſt. & bearing from London.	Religions.
Barbary.	Morocco	500	480	Fez	1080 S.	Mahometans
	Algiers	480	100	Algiers	920 S.	Mahometans
	[illegible]	220	170	Tunis	990 S. E.	Mahometans
		700	240	Tripoli	1260 S. E.	Mahometans
	Barca	400	300	Tolemeta	1440 S. E.	Mahometans
	Egypt	600	250	Grand Cairo	1920 S. E.	Mahometans
	Biledulgerid	2500	350	Dara	1565 S.	Pagans
	Zaara	2400	660	Tegeſſa	1840 S.	Pagans
	Negroland	2200	840	Madinga	2500 S.	Pagans
	Guinea	1800	360	Benin	2700 S.	Pagans
Upper Ethiopia.	Nubia	940	600	Nubia	2418 S. E.	Mah. & Pag.
	Abyſſinia	900	800	Gondar	2880 S. E.	Chriſtians
	Abex	540	130	Doncala	3580 S. E.	Chriſt. & Pag.
The Middle Parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans.						
Lower Ethiopia.	Loango	410	300	Loango	3300 S.	Chriſt. & Pag.
	Congo	540	420	St. Salvador	3480 S.	Chriſt. & Pag.
	Angola	360	250	Loando	3750 S.	Chriſt. & Pag.
	Benguela	430	180	Beneguela	3900 S.	Pagans
	Matanan	450	240	No Towns	* * *	Pagans
	Ajan	900	300	Brava	3702 S. E.	Pagans
	Zanguebar	1400	350	Melinda or Mozambique	4440 S. E.	Pagans
	Monomotapa	960	660	Monomotapa	4500 S.	Pagans
	Monemugi	900	660	Chicova	4260 S.	Pagans
	Sofola	480	300	Sofola	4600 S. E.	Pagans
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	No Towns	* * *	Pagans
	Caffaria or Hottentots	780	660	Cape of Good Hope	5200 S.	Moſt ſtupid Pagans

The principal iſlands of Africa lie in the Indian ſeas and Atlantic ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with the Europeans, and ſerve to refreſh their ſhipping to and from India.

Iſlands.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to
Babelmandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea	Babelmandel —	All nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean —	Calanſia — —	Ditto
The Comora Iſles, ditto — —	Joanna — —	Ditto
Madagaſcar, ditto — —	St. Auſtin — —	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto — —	Mauritius — —	French
Bourbon, ditto — —	Bourbon — —	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean —	St. Helena — —	Engliſh
Aſcenſion, ditto — —		Uninhabited
St. Mathew, ditto — —		Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-Iſland, Fernandopo — — } dit.	St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portugueze
Cape Verd Iſlands, ditto —	St. Domingo — —	Ditto
Goree, ditto — —	Fort St. Michael —	French
Canaries, ditto — —	Palma, St. Chriſtophers	Spaniſh
Madeiras, ditto — — —	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portugueze
The Azores, or Weſtern Iſles, lie nearly at an equal diſtance from Europe, Africa and America } dit.	Angra — —	Ditto

Having given the reader ſome idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their ſuppoſed dimenſions, we ſhall now conſider it under three grand diviſions; firſt, Egypt; ſecondly, the ſtates of Barbary, ſtretching along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the eaſt, to the Atlantic Ocean, weſt; and, laſtly, that part of Africa between the tropic of Cancer, and the cape of Good Hope: the laſt of theſe diviſions, indeed, is vaſtly greater than the other two; but the nations, which it contains, are ſo little known, and ſo barbarous, and like all barbarous nations, ſo ſimilar in moſt reſpects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

EGYPT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	600 }	between	{ 20 and 32 north latitude.
Breadth	250 }		{ 28 and 36 eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, north; the Red ſea, eaſt; by Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the ſouth; and by the deſart of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, weſt; but how far modern Egypt extends into theſe deſarts countries towards the weſt is not determined by geographers; its bread therefore is variouſly repreſented.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
Northern diviſion contains	Lower Egypt	GRAND CAIRO, lon. 32. N. lat.
		Bulac
		Alexandria
		Roſetto
		Damietta
Southern diviſion contains	Upper Egypt	Sayd or Thebes
		Coſſiar

AIR.] In April and May the air is hot, and often infectious; the inhabitants are blinded with drifts of ſand. Thoſe evils are remedied by the riſing and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Whoever is in the leaſt acquainted with literature, knows that the vaſt fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain, (little falling in that country) but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to riſe when the ſun is vertical in Ethiopia, and the annual rains fall there, viz. the latter end of May to September, and ſometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be ſeen in the plains, but the tops of foreſts and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of a jubilee, with all ſorts of feſtivities. The banks or mounds which confine it, are cut by the Turkiſh baſha, attended by his grandees; but according to captain Norden, who was preſent on the occaſion, the ſpectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is let into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is diſtributed into cuts, for ſupplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, ſuch is the fertility of the ſoil, that the labouring huſbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about ſix weeks, nothing can be more charming than the proſpect, which the face of the country preſents, in riſing corn, vegetables, and verdure of every ſort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulſe, melons, ſugar canes, and other plants, which require moiſture, is ſupplied by ſmall but regular cuts from ciſterns and reſervoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harveſt months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers, (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants) one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian paſturage is equally prolific, moſt of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the ſheep four lambs a year.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle, and it is ſaid that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen, in raiſing water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of aſſes, upon which the Chriſtians ride, thoſe people not being ſuffered by the Turks to ride on any other beaſt. The Egyptian horſes are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great ſpeed, turn ſhort, ſtop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horſe, an amphibious animal, reſembling an ox, in its hinder parts, with the head like a horſe, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called Ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal ſomething reſembling a lizzard, that changes colour, as you ſtand to look upon him, is found here as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not ſeem to be any material difference between it, and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four ſhort legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable ſcales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the ſedge, and other cover, on the ſides of rivers, and pretty much reſembling the

trunk of an old tree, ſometimes ſurprizes the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewiſe great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) ſomewhat reſembling a duck, was deified by the antient Egyptians for its deſtroying ſerpents, and peſtiferous inſects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a ſpecies of them is ſaid to have been lately diſcovered in other parts of Africa. Oſtriches are common here, and are ſo ſtrong, that the Arabs ſometimes ride upon their backs.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] As the population of Egypt is almoſt confined to the banks of the Nile, and the reſt of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can ſay little upon this head, with preciſion. It ſeems however to be certain that Egypt is at preſent not near ſo populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being ſlaves to the Turks. They are, however, ſtill very numerous, but the populouſneſs of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The deſcendents of the original Egyptians, are an ill-looked ſlovenly people, immerſed in indolence, and are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Coptis; in their complexions they are rather ſun-burnt than ſwarthy or black. Their anceſtors were once Chriſtians, and in general they ſtill pretend to be of that religion, but Mahometaniſm is the prevailing worſhip of Egypt. Thoſe who inhabit the villages and fields, at any conſiderable diſtance from the Nile, I have already mentioned to conſiſt of Arabs or their deſcendents, who are of a deep, ſwarthy complexion, and they are repreſented by the beſt authorities, as retaining the patriarchal tending their flocks, and many of them without any fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reſide in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and inſolence, and the Turkiſh habit, to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Arabs and Coptis, who dreſs very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers, but their ordinary dreſs is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Chriſtians and Arabs of the meaner kind, content themſelves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather ſlippers, the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Chriſtians yellow. The dreſs of the women is tawdry and unbecoming, but their cloaths are ſilk, when they can afford it, and ſuch of them as are not expoſed to the ſun, have delicate complexions and features. The Coptis are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exerciſes and diverſions are much the ſame as thoſe made uſe of in Perſia, and other Aſiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling ſlight-of-hand men.

RELIGION.] To what I have already ſaid concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthuſiaſts, and have among them their ſantos or fellows who pretend to a ſuperior degree of holineſs, and without any ceremony intrude into the houſes, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little, and it would be hard to ſay what ſpecies of Chriſtianity is profeſſed by the Chriſtian Cops, which are but few numerous, but they profeſs themſelves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters

they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by the dint of money generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the most antient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is past dispute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the antient Egyptians, yet scarce a vestige of it remains among their descendents. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation which is of general use. The califs or Saracens who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomet, made war from conscience and principle upon all kind of literature excepting the Alcoran; and hence it was that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The califs of the second race, were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar strain. They bought up all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy, but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of califs, especially those who called themselves califs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning therefore possessed by the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of Arabesque or the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with those than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The basis of the largest, covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The mummy pits, so called for their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the antient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said that some of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and distinct at this day, tho' buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth is a curiosity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the

Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which ſtill ſubſiſt, and are evidences of the utility, as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, moſtly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo, is a continued ſcene of antiquities, of which the oldeſt are the moſt ſtupendous, but the more modern the moſt beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its ſculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the ſhaft of which is one ſtone, being 88 feet, nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column, the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedeſtal. The Sphynx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the ſhoulders of a woman hewn out of the rock, and about 30 feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The ruſh papyrus, which grows upon the banks of the Nile, is one of the natural curioſities of Egypt, and ſerved the antients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nouriſhing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens, is common in Egypt, and now practiſed in ſome parts of Europe. The conſtruction of the oven is very curious.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES. } Even a ſlight review of theſe would amount to a large volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are ſtill entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as freſh and vivid, as when firſt laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coaſt, was once the emporium of all the world, and by means of the Red-Sea, furniſhed Europe, and great part of Aſia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It ſtands 40 miles weſt from the Nile, and 120 north-weſt of Cairo. It roſe upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-houſe erected on the oppoſite iſland of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deſervedly eſteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the ciſterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building Nero Alexandria, which at preſent is a very ordinary ſeaport, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithſtanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their moſques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within theſe ruins, preſerve an inexpreſſible air of majeſty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the antient Memphis.

Roſetta, or Raſchid, ſtands 25 miles to the north-weſt of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful ſituation, and delightful proſpects, which command the fine country, or iſland of Delta, formed by the Nile near its mouth. It is likewiſe a place of great trade.

Cairo, the preſent capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a diſagreeable reſidence, on account of its peſtilential air, and its narrow ſtreets. It is divided into two towns, the old, and the new, and defended by an old caſtle, the works of which are ſaid to be three miles in circumference. The well called Joſeph's well, is a curious piece of mechaniſm, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is ſtill revered in Egypt, where they ſhew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vaſt antiquity, but it is very queſtionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is ſhewn in Old Cairo, but captain Norden ſuſpects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city

city itſelf. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the antient Memphis. The Chriſtians of Cairo practiſe a holy cheat, during the Eaſter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead ariſe from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The ſtreets of Cairo are peſtered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intenſe heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the ſound of drums, the noiſe of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, ſuppoſed to be the antient Peluſium; Bulac; Seyd, on the weſt bank of the Nile, 200 miles ſouth of Cairo, ſaid to be the antient Egyptian Thebes, and by the few who have viſited it, it is reported to be one of the moſt capital antique curioſities that is now extant. The general practice of ſtrangers, who viſit thoſe places, is to hire a janiſary, whoſe authority commonly protects them from the inſults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a ſmall city, and gives name to the iſthmus, that joins Africa with Aſia. The children of Iſrael are ſuppoſed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red-Sea. The above is all the account my bounds will admit of the topography of this country, where almoſt every object and village preſents ſome amazing piece of antiquity. The difficulties in viſiting it are great; ſo that the accounts we can depend upon, are but few, nor do they always agree together.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Modern geographers mention little of Egyptian manufactures at this time, but captain Norden, who travelled to that country, at the expence of his preſent Daniſh majeſty's grandfather, about the year 1737, has been pretty explicit on the ſubject of commerce, and from him we learn that the Egyptians export prodigious quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all ſorts, callicoes, yellow wax, ſal armoniac, ſaffron, ſugar, ſenna, caſſia. They trade with the Arabs, for coffee, drugs, ſpices, callicoes, and other merchandizes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they ſend them to Europe. Several European ſtates have conſuls reſident in Egypt, but the cuſtoms of the Turkiſh government are managed by Jews. A number of Engliſh veſſels arrive yearly at Alexandria, ſome of which are laden on account of the owners, but moſt of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders. Captain Norden ſeems to think that the Engliſh conſul and merchants make no great figure at Alexandria, but that they are in much leſs danger, and leſs troubled than the French.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Theſe ſeem to be but little known to modern times. It is certain that Egypt is ſubject to the Turks, and that even the meaneſt janiſary is reſpected by the natives. A viceroy is ſent to Egypt, under the title of the paſha or baſhaw of Cairo, and is one of the greateſt officers of the Ottoman empire; but as the interior parts of Egypt are almoſt inacceſſible to ſtrangers, we know little of their government and laws. It is generally agreed, that the paſha is very careful how he provokes the little princes, or rather heads of clans, who have parcelled out Egypt among themſelves, and whom he governs chiefly by playing one againſt another. He has however a large regular army, and a militia, which ſerve as nurſeries from whence the Ottoman troops are recruited. The keeping up this army employs his chief attention. It has ſometimes happened

happened that thoſe paſhas have employed their arms againſt their maſters; they are ſometimes diſplaced by the Porte, upon complaints from thoſe petty princes. Thoſe circumſtances may account for the reaſon why Egypt is not over-loaded with taxes. Captain Norden and Dr. Pocock have given us the beſt, and indeed a very unfavourable account of thoſe petty princes, who are called the Schechs of the Bedouins, or wandering Arabs, who are ſometimes too powerful to receive laws from the Turkiſh government.

A certain number of beys or begs, are appointed over the provinces of Egypt, under the paſha. Though theſe beys are deſigned to be checks upon him, yet they often aſſume independent powers, and many of them have conſiderable revenues.

REVENUES.] Theſe are very inconſiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the deſpotiſm of its government. Some ſay that they amount to a million ſterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is ſpent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Authors are greatly divided on this article. Captain Norden tells us, that it is divided into two corps of janiſaries, and aſſafs are the chief, the former amounting to about ſix or eight thouſand, and the latter to between three and four thouſand. The other troops are of little account. After all, it does not at all appear, that the paſhaw ever ventures to employ thoſe troops againſt the Arab or Egyptian princes I have already mentioned, and who have ſeparate armies of their own; ſo that, in fact, their dependance upon the Porte, is little more than nominal, and amounts at moſt to feudal ſervices.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharoahs, ſat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted ſucceſſion, till Cambyſes II. king of Perſia, conquered the Egyptians 520 years before the birth of Chriſt; and that in the reign of theſe princes thoſe wonderful ſtructures the pyramids were raiſed, which cannot be viewed without aſtoniſhment. Egypt continued a part of the Perſian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquiſhed Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who ſoon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conqueſts of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being ſeized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the ſhare of Ptolemy, by ſome ſuppoſed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 320 years before Chriſt. His ſucceſſors, who ſometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolomies, and in that line Egypt continued between 2 and 300 years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and ſiſter of Ptolemy Dionyſius, the laſt king, aſcended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been miſtreſs ſucceſſively to Julius Cæſar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar the ſecond calif of the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, ſaid to conſiſt of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, ſon of the firſt Ptolemy; and the ſame prince cauſed the Old Teſtament to be tranſlated into Greek, but whether by 72 interpreters, and in the manner commonly related, is juſtly queſtioned. This tranſlation is known by the name of the Septuagint, and is often quoted by commentators. About the time of the cruſades, between the year 1150, and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noreddin, whoſe

the famous Saladin, was ſo dreadful to thoſe Chriſtian adventurers, and retook from them Jeruſalem. He inſtituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after choſe their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for ſome time, made a figure under thoſe illuſtrious uſurpers, and made a noble ſtand againſt the prevailing power of the Turks, under Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes ſeveral bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its preſent ſtate of ſubjection.

While Selim was ſettling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the antient inhabitants withdrew into the deſarts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate thoſe marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their poſterity is known all over Europe and Aſia, by the name of Gipſies. Though I ſhall not warrant the truth of this account, yet it ſeems to be countenanced from the roving diſpoſitions, and the peculiar manners, features, and complexion of thoſe ſwarthy begging itinerants. Of late, however, many of them have incorporated with, and adopted the manners of the people among whom they reſide.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head I ſhall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez, 2. Algiers, 3. Tunis, 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea; on the ſouth, by Tafilet; and on the eaſt, by Segelmeſſa and the kingdom of Algiers, being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the ſame in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the eaſt, and Morocco on the ſouth, and is ſurrounded in other parts by the ſea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth by Mount Atlas, and on the weſt by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, who reſided twelve years at Algiers in quality of chaplain to the Britiſh factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers reſpecting the ſtates of Barbary, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and eaſt; by the kingdom of Algiers on the weſt; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the ſouth; being 220 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 170 in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea; on the ſouth by the country of the Beriberies; on the weſt by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the eaſt by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the ſea-coaſt, and the breadth is from 100 to 300 miles.

Each

Each capital bears the name of the ſtate or kingdom to which it belongs.

This being premiſed, I ſhall conſider the Barbary ſtates as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exerciſe of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the ſame kingdom, in the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other ſtates, excepting in the months of July and Auguſt.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] Thoſe ſtates, under the Roman empire, were juſtly denominated the garden of the world, and to have a reſidence there was conſidered as the higheſt ſtage of luxury. The produce of their ſoil formed thoſe magazines, which furniſhed all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppreſſion and barbarity of their conſtitution, yet they are ſtill fertile, not only in the above-mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raiſins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen-gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for ſome time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleaſures of life; for their great people find means to evade the ſobriety preſcribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines, and ſpirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces ſalt-petre, and great quantities of excellent ſalt, and lead and iron have been found in ſeveral places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the ſtates of Barbary, but their deſerts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monſtrous ſerpents. The Barbary horſes were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed are now ſaid to be decayed, yet ſome very fine ones have been lately imported into England. Camels and dromedaries, aſſes, mules, and kumrahs, a moſt ſerviceable creature, begot by an aſs upon a cow, are their beaſts of burden. Their cows are but ſmall, and barren of milk. Their ſheep yield but indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weaſels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Beſides vermin, ſays Dr. Shaw, (ſpeaking of his travels thro' Barbary) the apprehenſions we were under in ſome parts at leaſt of this country, of being bitten or ſtung by the ſcorpion, the viper, or the venomous ſpider, rarely failed to interrupt our repoſe; a refreſhment ſo very grateful, and ſo highly neceſſary to a weary traveller. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild fowl, are found on this coaſt; and of the ſmaller birds the capſa-ſparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the ſweetneſs of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The ſeas and bays of Barbary abound with the fineſt and moſt delicious fiſh of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to thoſe of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than

than it is now, if, as travellers ſay, its capital contained 100,000 houſes, whereas at preſent, it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants, nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horſe and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is ſaid to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Chriſtian ſlaves; but no eſtimate can be formed as to the populouſneſs of its territory. Some travellers report, that it is inhabited by a friendly hoſpitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from thoſe of the metropolis.

Tunis is the moſt poliſhed republic of all the Barbary ſtates. The capital contains 10,000 families, above 3000 tradeſmens ſhops, and its ſuburbs conſiſt of 1000 houſes. The Tuniſines are indeed exceptions to the other ſtates of Barbary; for even the moſt civilized of the European governments, might improve from their manners. Their diſtinctions are well kept up, and proper reſpect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned profeſſions. They cultivate friendſhip with the European ſtates; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them, and the inhabitants are ſaid at preſent to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The Tuniſine women are exceſſively handſome in their perſons, and though the men are ſun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they leſs neat and elegant in their dreſs; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead ore, the ſame pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made uſe of when ſhe is ſaid (2 Kings, chap. ix. verſe 30.) to have painted her face, the words of the original being, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are ſober, orderly, and clean in their perſons, their behaviour genteel and complaiſant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the ſtreets and city.

Tripoli was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and opulent of all the ſtates on the coaſt; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are pretty much of a piece with thoſe of the Egyptians already deſcribed. The ſubjects of the Barbary ſtates, however, in general ſubſiſting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight deſperately when they meet with a prize at ſea. They are notwithſtanding far inferior to the Engliſh, and other European ſtates, both in the conſtruction and management of their veſſels. They are, if we except the Tuniſines, void of all arts and literature. The miſery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's ſervice, are beyond all deſcription; but thoſe who inhabit the inland parts of the country, are a hoſpitable inoffenſive people; and indeed it is a general obſervation, that the more diſtant the inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are from the ſeats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithſtanding their poverty, they have a livelineſs about them, eſpecially thoſe who are of Arabic deſcent, that gives them an air of contentment, and having nothing to loſe, they are peaceable among themſelves. The Moors are ſuppoſed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppreſſed by a handful of inſolent domineering Turks, the refuſe of the ſtreets of Conſtantinople.

DRESS.] The dreſs of theſe people is a linen ſhirt, over which they tie a ſilk or cloth veſtment with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have ſlippers on their feet; and perſons of condition ſometimes wear buſkins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their ſlippers when they attend religious duties, or the perſon of their ſovereign. They are fond of ſtriped and fancied ſilks. The dreſs of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a ſort of a cawl on their heads inſtead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houſes conſiſts of carpets and matreſſes, on which they ſit and lie. In eating, their ſlovenlineſs is ſhocking. They are prohibited gold and ſilver veſſels; and their meat, which they ſwallow by handfuls, is boiled or roaſted to rags. Adultery in the women is puniſhed with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the moſt unnatural crimes with impunity.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are Mahometans; but many ſubjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern ſectariſt, and an enemy to the antient doctrine of the califs. All of them are very fond of ideots, and in ſome caſes their protection ſcreens offenders from puniſhment, for the moſt notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are now promiſcuouſly called, have adopted the very worſt parts of the Mahometan religion, and ſeem to have retained only as much of it as authorizes them to commit the moſt horrible villanies.

LANGUAGE.] As the ſtates of Barbary poſſeſs thoſe countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the antient African language is ſtill ſpoken in ſome of the inland countries, and even by ſome inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the ſea port towns, and maritime countries, a baſtard kind of Arabic is ſpoken, and ſea-faring people are no ſtrangers to that medley of living and dead languages that is ſo well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of Lingua Franca.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] This article is well worth the ſtudy of an antiquary, but the ſubjects of it are difficult of acceſs. The reader can ſcarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phenician, Greek, and Roman works, is replete with the moſt curious remains of antiquity, but they lie ſcattered amidſt ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some remains of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatneſs are ſtill to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidences of their antient grandeur and populouſneſs. Theſe point out the old Julia Cæſarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itſelf. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are ſaid to be ſtill remaining, but no veſtige of its walls. The ſame is the fate of Utica, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and ſo over-run is the country with barbariſm, that their very ſcites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings which remain ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Beſides thoſe of claſſical antiquity, many Saracen monuments of the moſt ſtupendous magnificence are likewiſe found in this vaſt tract; theſe were erected under the califs of Bagdat, and the antient kings of the country before it was ſubdued by the Turks, or reduced to its preſent form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications

fications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curiosities belonging to this country, excepting its salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions springs found here that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

Before I close this article it may be proper to observe, that this country has been but little visited by the curious, if we except Dr. Shaw; but it certainly deserves a more accurate investigation.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities, but by the best accounts, the common people live in a dirty slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers, is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though, as I have already observed, it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. Their public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful; but the city, though for several ages it has braved the greatest powers in Christendom, could make but a faint defence against a regular siege; and it is said that three English 50 gun ships might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. The town itself has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but never can make any considerable figure, on account of the inconveniencies attending its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the antient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides, excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many other, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. I cannot, however, leave it without mentioning those belonging to the kingdom of Fez facing Gibraltar, as having been the scene of frequent wars between the Christians of Europe and the Moors of Barbary. The city of Fez, at present the capital of that kingdom, is supposed to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, beside merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500, one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament obliged him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that from being one of the best cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing town. Ceuta,

upon

upon the ſame ſtrait, almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always beſieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houſes; but the inhabitants are ſaid to be rich, extremely complaiſant, and they live in an elegant manner.

The provinces of Suz, Taſilet, and Geſula, form no part of the ſtates of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their ſovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower ſubjects of thoſe ſtates, know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies, to be ſupplied with neceſſary utenſils and manufactures, ſo that their exports conſiſt chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, ſword knots and carpets, which are cheaper and ſofter than thoſe of Turkey, though not ſo good in other reſpects. As they leave almoſt all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Chriſtians ſettled among them, the latter have eſtabliſhed ſilk and linen works, which ſupply the higher ranks of their own ſubjects. They have no ſhips that, properly ſpeaking, are employed in commerce; ſo that the French and Engliſh carry on the greateſt part of their trade. Their exports, beſides thoſe already mentioned, conſiſt in elephants teeth, oſtrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raiſins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and ſandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewiſe ſaid to carry on a conſiderable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and ſome inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vaſt numbers of negroes who ſerve in their armies, and are ſlaves in their houſes and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furniſh them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities, the particulars of which are too many to ſpecify. The duties paid by the Engliſh in the ports of Morocco are but half thoſe paid by other Europeans. It is a general obſervation that no nation is fond of trading with theſe ſtates, not only on account of their capricious deſpotiſm, but the villainy of their individuals, both natives and Jews, who take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected, are ſeldom puniſhed.

It has often been thought ſurprizing, that the Chriſtian powers ſhould ſuffer their marine to be inſulted by thoſe barbarians, who take the ſhips of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a ſubſidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwiſe, than by ſuppoſing, firſt, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be their lord paramount; ſecondly, that no chriſtian power would be fond of ſeeing Algiers, or the reſt of that coaſt, in poſſeſſion of another; and, thirdly, that no thing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would inſtantly carry their effects into their deſarts or mountains, ſo that the benefit, reſulting from the conqueſt, muſt be tedious and precarious.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government can not be ſaid to exiſt. The emperors have for ſome ages been partial judges, and even executioners, with their own hands, in all criminal matters, nor is their brutality more incredible than the ſubmiſſion with which their ſubjects bear it. In abſence of the emperor every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is ſeldom

they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some veſtiges, however, of the califate government ſtill continue, for in places where no military officer reſides, the muſti or high prieſt is the fountain of all juſtice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our juſtices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately ſubject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand ſignior to be his ſuperior, and he pays him a diſtant allegiance as the chief repreſentative of Mahomet. What I have ſaid of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkiſh paſha or dey, who governs in the name of the grand ſignior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious ſubjects to his authority. He cannot even be ſaid to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every ſoldier in the army has a vote in chuſing the ſucceeding dey; and though the election is often attended with blood-ſhed, yet it is no ſooner fixed than he is chearfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he muſt be confirmed by the Porte, but that is ſeldom refuſed, as the divan is no ſtranger to the diſpoſitions of the people. The power of the dey is deſpotic, and the income of the dey of Algiers, amounts to about 150,000l. a year, without greatly oppreſſing the ſubjects, who are very tenacious of their property. Theſe deys pay ſlight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand ſignior is at war with a Chriſtian power, he requires their aſſiſtance, as he does that of the king of Morocco, but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which conſiſts of 30 paſhas. Theſe paſhas ſeldom fail of forming parties, among the ſoldiers, againſt the reigning dey, whom they make no ſcruple of aſſaſſinating, even in council, and the ſtrongeſt candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is depoſed; ſometimes, though but very ſeldom, he reſigns his authority to ſave his life, and it is ſeldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited, but an unſucceſsful expedition, or too pacific a conduct ſeldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] I have already mentioned thoſe of Algiers, but they are now ſaid to be exceeded by Tunis. They conſiſt of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Chriſtians, a ſmall capitation tax, and the cuſtoms paid by the Engliſh, French, and other nations, who are ſuffered to trade with thoſe ſtates. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, becauſe none of his ſubjects can be ſaid to poſſeſs any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The cuſtoms of Chriſtian ſlaves are his perquiſites. He ſometimes ſhares in the veſſels of the other ſtates, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan ſubjects, and ſix crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewiſe conſiderable profits from the Negroland, and other caravans, eſpecially the ſlave trade towards the ſouth. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue in money does not exceed 165,000l. a year.

MILITARY STRENGTH AT SEA AND LAND. } By the beſt accounts we have received, the king of Morocco can bring to the field 60,000 men; but the ſtrength of his army conſiſts of cavalry mounted

by his negroe ſlaves. Thoſe wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other ſtate but ſervitude, and no other maſter but that king, and prove the firmeſt ſupport of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco conſiſted only of three ſmall ſhips, which lay at Sallee, and being full of men, ſometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, conſiſting of Turks, and cologlies, or the ſons of ſoldiers. Part of them ſerve as marines on board their veſſels. About 1000 of them do garriſon duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Beſides theſe, the dey can bring 2000 Mooriſh horſe to the field, but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little truſted. Thoſe troops are under excellent diſcipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary ſtates, keep up a force in proportion to their abilities, ſo that a few years ago, they refuſed to ſend any tribute to the Turkiſh emperor, who ſeems to be ſatisfied with the ſhadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets, and a more extenſive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that ſtate flouriſhed, the preſent inhabitants have ſcarce any merchant ſhips belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which are but few and ſmall, and ſome years ago did not exceed ſix ſhips from 36 to 50 guns. The admiral's ſhip belongs to the government, the other captains are appointed by private owners, but ſubject to military law. With ſuch a contemptible fleet, theſe infidels not only haraſs the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of preſents.

HISTORY.] There perhaps is no problem in hiſtory ſo unaccountable as the decadence of the ſplendor, power, and glory of the ſtates of Barbary, which, when Rome was miſtreſs of the world, formed the faireſt jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the ſeventh century that, after theſe ſtates had been by turns in poſſeſſion of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs or Saracens of Bagdat conquered them, and from thence became maſters of almoſt all Spain, from whence their poſterity was totally driven about the year 14[illegible], when the exiles ſettled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coaſt. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who preſſed them ſo hard, that they called to their aſſiſtance the two famous brothers Barbaroſſa, who were admirals of the Turkiſh fleet, and who after breaking the Spaniſh yoke, impoſed upon the inhabitants of all thoſe ſtates (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unſucceſsful; and as we have already obſerved, the inhabitants have in fact ſhaken off the Turkiſh yoke likewiſe.

The emperors or kings of Morocco, are the ſucceſſors of thoſe ſovereigns of that country who were called xeriffs, and whoſe powers reſembled that of the califat of the Saracens. They have been in general a ſet of bloody tyrants, though they have had among them ſome able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almoſt a continued ſtate of war with the kings of Spain and other Chriſtian princes ever ſince; nor

the crown of Great Britain ſometimes diſdain, as in the year 1769, to purchaſe their friendſhip with preſents *.

Of AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope. *See the Table and Map.*

THIS immenſe territory is, comparatively ſpeaking, very little known; there is no traveller that has penetrated into the interior parts, ſo that we are ignorant not only of the bounds but even of the names of ſeveral inland countries. In many material circumſtances, the inhabitants of this extenſive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyſſinia, who are tawny, and profeſs a mixture of Chriſtianity, Judaiſm and Paganiſm, they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the ſea coaſts, which have been viſited and ſettled by ſtrangers, they are Pagans: and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, poſſeſs a very extenſive juriſdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are groſly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in ſmall ſocieties, each governed by its own prince. In Abyſſinia indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but on examination, it is found that the authority of theſe princes ſtands on a precarious footing, each tribe or ſeparate body of their ſubjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, to whoſe commands, however contrary to thoſe of the negaſcha negaſcht, or king of kings, they are always ready to ſubmit. This indeed muſt always be the caſe among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very ſimple and imperfect ſtate. In the ſucceſſion to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the deſcendants, whether male or female.

The fertility of a country ſo prodigiouſly extenſive, might be ſuppoſed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of ſoil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile: this ariſes from the intenſe heat of the ſun, which, where it meets with ſufficient moiſture, produces the utmoſt luxuriancy; and in thoſe countries where there are few rivers, reduces the ſurface of the earth to a barren ſand. Of this ſort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and conſequently of all other neceſſaries, are reduced to perfect deſerts, as the name of the latter denotes. In thoſe countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land part of the year, as in Abyſſinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the higheſt perfection and greateſt abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Caſati, and Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and ſilver. The baſer

 metals

* The inhabitants of the Barbary coaſt have been long known by the name of Moors, becauſe the Saracens firſt entered Europe from Mauritania in Africa, the country of the Moors.

metals likewiſe are found in theſe and many other parts of Africa. But the perſons of the natives make the moſt conſiderable article in the produce and traffic of this miſerable quarter of the globe. On the Guinea or weſtern coaſt, the Engliſh trade to James Fort, and other ſettlements near the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and ſpirituous liquors, for the perſons of the natives. Among the Negroes, a man's wealth conſiſts in the number of his family, whom he ſells like ſo many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the ſlave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. Theſe are carried on from the ſame coaſt where the Dutch and French, as well as Engliſh, have their ſettlements for this purpoſe. The Portugueſe are in poſſeſſion of the eaſt and weſt coaſts of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the Equator; which immenſe tract they became maſters of by their ſucceſſive attempts and happy diſcovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coaſt of Zanguebar, on the eaſtern ſide, they trade not only for the articles above-mentioned, but likewiſe for ſeveral others, as ſenna, aloes, civet, ambergris, and frankincenſe. The Dutch have ſettlements towards the ſouthern parts of the continent, in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, where their ſhips bound for India uſually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them ſpirituous liquors.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of this continent is little known, and probably affords no materials which deſerve to render it more ſo. We know from the antients, who ſailed a conſiderable way round the coaſts, that the inhabitants were in the ſame rude ſituation near 2000 years ago in which they are at preſent, that is, they had nothing of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by ſuppoſing that nature has placed ſome inſuperable barrier between the natives of this diviſion of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe, or that the former, being ſo long accuſtomed to a ſavage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became altogether incapable of making any progreſs in civility or ſcience. It is very certain that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the leaſt impreſſion on theſe ſavage mortals, or giving them the leaſt inclination or even idea of the European manner of life.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African iſlands, ſome lie in the Eaſtern or Indian Ocean, and ſome in the Weſtern or Atlantic. We ſhall begin with thoſe in the Indian Ocean, the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagaſcar, the Comora Iſlands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

ZOCOTRA. This iſland is ſituated in eaſt lon. 53. north lat. 12. 30 leagues eaſt of Cape Gardafui, on the continent of Africa; it is 80 miles long and 54 broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ſhips uſed formerly to put in when they loſt their paſſage to India. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding moſt of the fruits and plants that are uſually found within the tropics, together with frankincenſe, gu-

gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The iſland of Babelmandel gives name to the ſtraits at the entrance of the Red-Sea, where it is ſituated in eaſt lon. 44-30, north lat. 12, about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyſſinian ſhores. The Abyſſinians or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the poſſeſſion of this iſland, as it commands the entrance into the South-Sea, and preſerves a communication with the ocean. This ſtrait was formerly the only paſſage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but ſince the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope the trade by the Red-Sea is of little importance. The iſland is of little value, being a barren ſandy ſpot of earth not five miles round.

COMORA. Theſe iſlands are ſituated between 41 and 46 eaſt lon. and between 10 and 14 ſouth lat. at an equal diſtance from Madagaſcar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are produced between the tropics. Eaſt-India ſhips, bound to Bombay, uſually touch here for refreſhments. The inhabitants are Negroes of the Mahometan perſuaſion, and entertain our ſeamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largeſt of the African iſlands, and is ſituated between 43 and 51 deg. eaſt lon. and between 10 and 26 ſouth lat. 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to ſouth; and generally between 2 and 300 miles broad. The ſea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between this iſland and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or paſſage, through which all European ſhips, in their voyage to and from India, generally ſail, unleſs prevented by ſtorms.

Madagaſcar is a pleaſant, deſirable, and fertile country, abounding in ſugar, honey, vines, fruit trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious ſtones, iron, ſome ſilver, copper, ſteel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; watered with numerous rivers, and well ſtored with fiſh. The air is generally temperate, and ſaid to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; ſome white, ſome Negroes, ſome Mahometans, ſome Pagans. The whites and thoſe of a tawny complexion who inhabit the coaſts, are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no moſques, temples, nor any ſtated worſhip, except that they offer ſacrifice of beaſts on particular occaſions; as when ſick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their aſſemblies, circumciſe their children, declare war, enter into new built houſes, or bury their dead. Many of them obſerve the Jew ſabbath, and give ſome account of the ſacred hiſtory, the creation and fall of man, as alſo of Noah, Abraham, Moſes, and David; from whence it is conjectured they are deſcended of Jews who formerly ſettled here, though none knows how or when. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and the French took poſſeſſion of it in 1642; but the

people diſliking their government, they were driven out in 1651; ſince which the natives have had the ſole poſſeſſion of the iſland, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for ſlaves and plunder. It is thought the French will again attempt to eſtabliſh themſelves here, if the other maritime powers do not interfere.

MAURITIUS. Maurice, or Mauritius, was ſo called by the Dutch, who firſt touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their ſtadtholder. It is ſituated in eaſt lon. 56, ſouth lat. 20. about 400 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding 50 large ſhips, ſecure againſt any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleaſant. The mountains, of which there are many, and ſome ſo high that their tops are covered with ſnow, produce the beſt ebony in the world, beſides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly reſemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The iſland is watered with ſeveral pleaſant rivers well ſtocked with fiſh; and though the ſoil is none of the moſt fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and ſheep. It was formerly ſubject to the Dutch, but is now in the poſſeſſion of the French.

BOURBON. The Iſle of Bourbon is ſituated in eaſt lon. 54, ſouth lat. 21, about 300 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for ſhipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and ſouth ſides; but hardly a ſingle harbour where ſhips can ride ſecure againſt thoſe hurricanes which blow during the monſoons. Indeed the coaſt is ſo ſurrounded with blind rocks, ſunk a few feet below the water, that coaſting along ſhore is at all times dangerous. On the ſouthern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, ſmoke, and ſulphur, with a hideous roaring noiſe, terrible in the night to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreſhed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the ſea and land: ſometimes, however, terrible hurricanes ſhake the whole iſland almoſt to its foundation; but generally without any other bad conſequence than frightening the inhabitants. The iſland abounds in brooks and ſprings, and in fruits, graſs and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there) aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and raiſins, particularly benzoin of an excellent ſort and in great plenty. The rivers are well ſtocked with fiſh, the coaſt with land and ſea tortoiſes, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the moſt beautiful ſhells, are found upon the ſhore. The woods are full of turtle doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleaſant to the palate. The French firſt ſettled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the iſland of Madagaſcar. They have now ſome conſiderable towns in the iſland, with a governor; and here their Eaſt-India ſhips touch and take in refreſhments.

There are a great many more ſmall iſlands about Madagaſcar, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where deſcribed.

Leaving therefore the eaſtern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good-Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic

an immenſe ocean, lying between the two grand diviſions of the globe, having Europe, Aſia, and Africa, or the old world, on the eaſt; and America, or the new world, on the weſt; towards which diviſion we now ſteer our courſe, touching in our way at the following iſlands upon the African coaſt, that have not yet been deſcribed, viz. St. Helena, Aſcenſion, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira iſlands. *See the Map.*

ST. HELENA. The firſt iſland on this ſide the Cape is St. Helena, ſituated in weſt lon. 6-4, ſouth lat. 16, being 1200 miles weſt of the continent of Africa, and 1800 eaſt of South America. The iſland is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high and very ſteep, and only acceſſible at the landing-place, in a ſmall valley at the eaſt ſide of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually daſhing on the ſhore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the iſland but at Chapel Vally Bay; and as the wind always blows from the ſouth-eaſt, if a ſhip overſhoots the iſland ever ſo little, ſhe cannot recover it again. The Engliſh plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian-corn; of the laſt, however, moſt part is deſtroyed by rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be deſtroyed; ſo that the flour they uſe is almoſt wholly imported from England; and in times of ſcarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes inſtead of bread. Though the iſland appears on every ſide a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diverſified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-ſtuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geeſe, and turkeys, with which they ſupply the ſailors, taking in exchange ſhirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of callico, ſilks, muſlins, arrack, ſugar, &c.

St. Helena is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe on the feſtival of the empreſs Helena, mother of the emperor Conſtantine the Great, whoſe name it ſtill bears. It does not appear that the Portugueſe ever planted a colony here: and the Engliſh Eaſt-India company took poſſeſſion of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by ſurprize. However, the Engliſh, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the ſpace of a year, and at the ſame time took three Dutch Eaſt-India ſhips that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the iſland, moſt of them deſcended from Engliſh parents. The Eaſt-India ſhips take in water and freſh proviſions here, in their way home; but the iſland is ſo ſmall, and the wind ſo much againſt them outward bound, that they very ſeldom ſee it then.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtore-keeper, who have ſtanding ſalaries allowed by the company, beſides a public table well furniſhed, to which all commanders, maſters of ſhips, and principal paſſengers are welcome.

ASCENSION. This iſland is ſituated in 7 deg. 40 min. ſouth lat. 600 miles north-weſt of St. Helena: it received its name from its being diſcovered by the Portugueſe on Aſcenſion-day; and is a mountainous barren iſland, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but has a ſafe convenient harbour, where the Eaſt-India ſhips generally touch to furniſh themſelves with turtles or tortoiſes, which are very plentiful here,

here, and vaſtly large, ſome of them weighing above 100 pounds each. The ſailors going aſhore in the night time, frequently turn 2 or 3 hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are ſometimes ſo cruel, as to turn many more than they uſe, leaving them to die on the ſhore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a ſmall iſland, lying in 6-1 weſt lon. and 1-30 ſouth lat. 300 miles to the north-eaſt of Aſcenſion, and was alſo diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who planted and kept poſſeſſion of it for ſome time; but afterwards deſerting it, this iſland now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to ſettle there except a ſmall lake of freſh water.

The four following iſlands, viz. ST. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCES ISLAND, and FERNANDO PO, are ſituated in the gulph of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and are ſtill in the poſſeſſion of that nation, and furniſh ſhipping with freſh water and proviſions as they paſs by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands are ſo called from a cape of that name on the African coaſt, near the river Gambia, over againſt which they lie, at the diſtance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. weſt lon. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were diſcovered in the year 1460, by the Portugueſe, and are about 20 in number; but ſome of them being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fago, Mayo, Bonaviſta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the moſt conſiderable, and are ſubject to the Portugueſe. The air, generally ſpeaking, is very hot, and in ſome of them very unwholeſome. They are inhabited by Europeans or the deſcendants of Europeans, and Negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portugueſe viceroy reſides, is the moſt fruitful, beſt inhabited, and largeſt of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is ſugar, cotton, ſome wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges and other tropical fruits; plenty of roots, garden-ſtuffs, and they have plenty of hogs and poultry, and ſome of the prettieſt green monkies with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, ſituated on the eaſt ſide, has a good port, and is ſeldom without ſhips, thoſe outward bound to Guinea or the Eaſt-Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreſhments.

In the iſland of Mayo or May, immenſe quantities of ſalt is made by the heat of the ſun from the ſea water, which, at ſpring tides, is received into a ſort of pan, formed by a ſand-bank, which runs along the coaſt for two or three miles. Here the Engliſh drive a conſiderable trade for ſalt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the veſſels that come to load with it, which in ſome years amount to a hundred or more. The ſalt coſts nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on aſſes to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ſhips come hither for a freight of ſalt, which they carry to Barbadoes and other Britiſh plantations. The inhabitants of this iſland, even the governor and prieſts, are all Negroes, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language. The Negro governor expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that loads ſalt, and is pleaſed to be invited aboard their ſhips. The ſea-water is ſo exceſſive clear on the coaſt

coaſt, that an Engliſh ſailor who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The iſland of Fogo is remarkable for being a volcano, continually ſending up ſulphureous exhalations; and ſometimes the flame breaks out like Ætna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice ſtones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is ſituated within cannon-ſhot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-43, W. lon. 17-20. and was ſo called by the Dutch from an iſland and town of the ſame name in Holland. It is a ſmall ſpot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance ariſes from its ſituation for trade ſo near Cape Verd, and has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was firſt poſſeſſed by the Dutch, from whom in 1663 it was taken by the Engliſh, but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1677 ſubdued by the French, in whoſe poſſeſſion it remained till the year 1759, when the Britiſh arms were every where triumphant, and it was reduced by commodore Keppel, but reſtored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763.

CANARIES. The Canaries, antiently called the Fortunate iſlands, are ſeven in number, and ſituated between 12 and 19 deg. weſt lon. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles ſouth-weſt of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuertuventura, and Langarote. Theſe iſlands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially grapes, which produce thoſe rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greateſt part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at 10,000 hogſheads annually. The Canaries abound with thoſe little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now ſo common and ſo much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel thoſe in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and ſo extremely fertile, as to produce two harveſts in the year. Teneriffe, the largeſt of theſe iſlands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak, of which Capt. Glaſs obſerves, that in coming in with this iſland, in clear weather, the Peak may be eaſily diſcerned at 120 miles diſtance, and in ſailing from it at 150. The Peak is an aſcent in the form of a ſugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat Biſhop of Rocheſter, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, near three miles perpendicular. This mountain is a volcano, and ſometimes throws out ſuch quantities of ſulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richeſt lands into barren deſerts. Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans deſtroying that ſtate, put a ſtop to the navigation on the weſt coaſt of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the reſt of the world, until they were again diſcovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they ſtill belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives reſembled the Africans in their ſtature and complexion when the Spaniards firſt came among them, their language was different from that ſpoken on the continent; they retained none of their cuſtoms, were maſters of no ſcience, and did not know there was any country in the world beſides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three iſlands called the Madeiras, are ſituated, according to the author of Anſon's voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 weſt lon. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many weſt of Sallee, in Morocco. The largeſt, from which the reſt derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almoſt covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is compoſed of one continued hill, of a conſiderable height, extending from eaſt to weſt; the declivity of which, on the ſouth-ſide, is cultivated and interſperſed with vineyards; and in the midſt of this ſlope the merchants have fixed their country ſeats, which form a very agreeable proſpect. There is but one conſiderable town in the whole iſland, which is named Funchal, ſeated on the ſouth part of the iſland, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the ſea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is poſſible for a boat to land, and even here the beach is covered with large ſtones, and a violent ſurf continually beats upon it.

Though this iſland ſeems to have been known to the antients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1519: but others aſſert that it was firſt diſcovered by an Engliſhman, in the year 1344. Be that as it will, the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of it, and are ſtill almoſt the only people who inhabit it. The Portugueſe, at their firſt landing, finding it little better than a thick foreſt, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by ſetting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richeſt wine, ſugar, the moſt delicate fruits, eſpecially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax: it abounds alſo with boars and other wild beaſts, and with all ſorts of fowls, beſides numerous groves of cedar trees, and thoſe that yield dragons blood, maſtic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this iſle make the beſt ſweet-meats in the world, and ſucceed wonderfully in preſerving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed paſtes, which exceed thoſe of Genoa. The ſugar they make is extremely beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. This indeed is ſaid to be the firſt place in the weſt, where that manufacture was ſet on foot, and from thence was carried to the Brazils in America. The Portugueſe not finding it ſo profitable as at firſt, have pulled up the greateſt part of their ſugar canes, and planted vineyards in their ſtead, which produce ſeveral ſorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the iſland, malmſey, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and ſell prodigious quantities. No leſs than 20,000 hogſheads of Madeira, it is ſaid, are yearly exported, the greateſt part to the Weſt-Indies, eſpecially to Barbadoes, the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when expoſed to the ſun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is ſaid no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other iſlands one is called Port Santo, which lies at a ſmall diſtance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compaſs, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ſhips may ride with ſafety againſt all winds, except the ſouth-weſt; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other iſland is an inconſiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we cloſe the account of Africa, we continue our courſe weſtward through this immenſe ocean

which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Weſtern Iſlands, that are ſituated between 25 and 32 deg. weſt long. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles weſt of Portugal, and as many eaſt of Newfoundland, lying almoſt in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel, or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Gracioſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were diſcovered by the Portugueſe, to whom they ſtill belong, and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All theſe iſlands enjoy a very clear and ſerene ſky, with a ſalubrious air; but are expoſed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently ſuffered; and alſo by the inundations of ſurrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, alſo cattle, fowl, and fiſh.

It is remarkable that no poiſonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and if carried thither will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largeſt, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the Engliſh in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the moſt important of theſe iſlands, on account of its harbour, which is ſpacious, and has good anchorage, but is expoſed to the ſouth-eaſt winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the reſidence of the governor of theſe iſlands, as well as the biſhop.

AMERICA.

WE are now to treat of a country of vaſt extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many reſpects more to that of nature than any other diviſion of the globe. The particular circumſtances of this country require that we ſhould in ſome meaſure vary our plan, and, before deſcribing its preſent ſtate, afford ſuch information with regard to its diſcovery, as is moſt neceſſary for ſatisfying our readers.

Towards the cloſe of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their ſupport to commerce. An interference of intereſts inſpired a mutual rivalſhip; but in traffic Venice was much ſuperior. She engroſſed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed, always, the moſt valuable in the world, but hitherto intirely carried on through the inland parts of Aſia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red-Sea. In this ſtate of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whoſe knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much ſuperior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of ſailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new ſource of opulence and power. But his propoſal of ſailing weſtward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoeſe as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as abſurd. Stung with diſappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his ſcheme before the court of France, where his reception was ſtill more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next reſort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the moſt oppoſite imaginable to a great but uncertain deſign.

In

In Portugal, where the ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery about this time began to operate, he had reaſon to expect better ſucceſs. But the Portugueſe contented themſelves with creeping along the coaſt of Africa, and diſcovering one cape after another; they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open ſea, and of riſking the whole at once. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, ſtill remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his deſign, the more difficulty he found in accompliſhing it, and he was inſpired with that noble enthuſiaſm which always animates an adventrous and original genius. Spain was now his only reſource, and there, after eight years attendance, he ſucceeded through the intereſt of a woman. This was the celebrated queen Iſabella, who raiſed money upon her jewels to defray the expence of his expedition and to do honour to her ſex. Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon the moſt adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; the moſt ſtriking was the variation of the compaſs, then firſt obſerved, and which ſeemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered on an unknown ocean, and the only guide he had left was ready to forſake him. His ſailors, always diſcontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and inſiſted on their return. But the firmneſs of the commander, and much more the diſcovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus firſt landed on one of the Bahama iſlands, but there, to his ſurprize and ſorrow, diſcovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that theſe could not be the Indies he was in queſt of. In ſteering ſouthward, however, he found the iſland called Hiſpaniola, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hoſpitable people, and what was of ſtill greater conſequence, as it inſured his favourable reception at home, promiſing, from ſome ſamples he received, conſiderable quantities of gold. This iſland therefore he propoſed to make the centre of his diſcoveries; and having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the neceſſary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona; Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidſt the acclamations of the people, attended by ſome of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, utenſils, and ornaments of the country he had diſcovered. This entry into Barcelona was a ſpecies of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the iſlands in that great ſea which divides north and ſouth America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. That were the Weſt-Indies diſcovered by ſeeking a paſſage to the Eaſt; and even after the diſcovery, ſtill conceived to be a part of the eaſtern hemiſphere. The preſent ſucceſs of Columbus, his former diſappointments, and the glory attending ſo unexpected a diſcovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his deſigns now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of 17 ſail was immediately prepared; all the neceſſaries for conqueſt or diſcovery were embarked; and 1500 men, among whom were ſeveral of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the moſt ample authority. It is impoſſible to determine whether the genius of this great man in firſt conceiving

idea of theſe diſcoveries, or his ſagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, moſt deſerve our admiration. Inſtead of hurrying from ſea to ſea, and from one iſland to another, which, conſidering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with ſuch a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curioſity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the diſcoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himſelf the unavailing applauſe of viſiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleaſure of ſeeing them. With this view he made for Hiſpaniola, where he eſtabliſhed a colony, and erected forts in the moſt advantageous grounds for ſecuring the dependence of the natives. Having ſpent a conſiderable time in this employment, and laboured for the eſtabliſhing of this colony with as much zeal and aſſiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to aſcertain the importance of his other diſcoveries, and to examine what advantages were moſt likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from ſome ſpecimens, ſeemed a rich diſcovery; but whether it was an iſland, or a part of ſome great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To aſcertain this point was the preſent object of his attention. In coaſting along the ſouthern ſhore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of iſlands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. Theſe iſlands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactreſs, who was always uppermoſt in his memory. In the ſame voyage Jamaica was diſcovered. But to ſo many difficulties was Columbus expoſed, on an unknown ſea, among rocks, ſhelves, and lands, that he returned to Hiſpaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprize.

By the firſt ſucceſs of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the ſame ſucceſs, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain ſet every ſpring in motion againſt him; and there is no difficulty in finding ſpecious grounds of accuſation againſt ſuch as are employed in the execution of an extenſive and complicated plan. An officer was diſpatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a ſpy and informer, and whoſe preſence plainly demonſtrated to Columbus the neceſſity of returning into Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to ſet out on a third expedition, ſtill more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He deſigned to ſtand to the ſouthward from the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly weſtward, that he might diſcover what opening that might afford to India, or what new iſlands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and ſuffering numberleſs inconveniencies from the exceſſive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured by a ſmart gale, and went before it ſeventeen days to the weſtward. At the end of this time, a ſeaman ſaw land, which was an iſland on the coaſt of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having paſſed this iſland, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was ſurprized with

with an appearance he had never ſeen before; this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occaſioned by a conflict betwixt the tide of the ſea and the rapid current of the immenſe river Oronoco. But ſailing forward, he plainly diſcovered that they were in freſh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any iſland ſhould ſupply ſo vaſt a river, he began to ſuſpect he had diſcovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the weſtward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this diſcovery, he yielded to the uneaſineſs and diſtreſſes of his crew, and bore away for Hiſpaniola. In the courſe of this diſcovery, Columbus landed at ſeveral places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the ſpirit of diſcovery ſpread itſelf widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wiſhed to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without poſſeſſing his abilities. The Portugueſe diſcovered Brazil, which makes at preſent the moſt valuable part of their poſſeſſions: Cabot, a native of Briſtol, diſcovered the north-eaſt coaſts, which now compoſe the Britiſh empire in North America; and Americus Veſpuſius, a merchant of Florence, ſailed to the ſouthern continent of America, and, being a man of addreſs, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now impoſed on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus was the firſt diſcoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the ſmalleſt mortifications to which this great man was compelled to ſubmit. For ſuch were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that after diſcovering the continent, and making ſettlements in the iſlands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory ſo much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which diſfigured all the exploits of thoſe who came after him, and accompliſhed the execution of his plan. He died at Valladolid, in 1506. The ſucceeding governors of Cuba and Hiſpaniola, endeavoured to purchaſe the ſame advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good ſenſe and humanity. Theſe iſlands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were placed; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of perſuaſion, hurried them to acts of the moſt ſhocking violence and cruelty againſt thoſe unhappy men who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treaſure. The ſlaughter once begun, they ſet no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hiſpaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had above 600,000. Bartholomew de la Caſas, witneſs of thoſe barbarous depopulations, ſays that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy ſavages, almoſt naked and unarmed, were purſued like deer into the thick of the foreſts, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-ſhot, or ſurprized and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only viſited the continent: from what they ſaw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a ſtill more valuable conqueſt. Fernando Cortez is diſpatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horſes, and a ſmall number of field pieces. With this inconſiderable force, he propoſes to ſubdue the moſt powerful ſtate on the continent of America: this was the empire of Mexico; rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians paſſionate

paſſionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whoſe fame in arms ſtruck terror into the neighbouring nations, and extended over one half the globe. Never hiſtory, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had ſubſiſted for ages: its inhabitants were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a poliſhed and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whoſe wiſdom is ſtill admired in this particular, that the year conſiſted nearly of 365 days. Their ſuperiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the ſure baſis of laws combined with religion, ſeemed to bid defiance to time itſelf. Mexico, the capital of the empire, ſituated in the middle of a ſpacious lake, was the nobleſt monument of American induſtry: it communicated with the continent by immenſe cauſeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of ſtone, its ſquares and market places, the ſhops which glittered with gold and ſilver, and the ſumptuous palaces of Montezuma, ſome erected on columns of jaſper, and containing whatever was moſt rare, curious, or uſeful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it againſt the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with feeble oppoſition from the nations along the coaſt of Mexico, who were terrified at their firſt appearance: the warlike animals, on which the Spaniſh officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which iſſued from their hands, the wooden caſtles which had wafted them over the ocean, ſtruck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched they ſpared no age or ſex, nothing ſacred or prophane. At laſt, the inhabitants of Tlaſca, and ſome other ſtates on the coaſt, deſpairing of being able to oppoſe them, enter into their alliance, and join armies with thoſe terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and in his progreſs diſcovers a volcano of ſulphur and ſaltpetre, whence he could ſupply himſelf with powder. Montezuma heard of his progreſs, without daring to oppoſe it. This ſovereign commanded 30 vaſſals of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he dares not reſiſt a handful of Spaniards aided by a few Americans whoſe allegiance would be ſhaken by the firſt reverſe of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spaniſh victories, which always marched before them.

By ſending a rich preſent of gold, which only whetted the Spaniſh avarice, Montezuma haſtened the approach of the enemy. No oppoſition is made to their entry into his capital. A palace is ſet apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treated as the maſters of the new world. He had good reaſon, however, to diſtruſt the affected politeneſs of this emperor, under which he ſuſpected ſome plot for his deſtruction was concealed; but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindneſs, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was ſurrounded with artillery, the moſt frightful of all engines to the Americans. At laſt a circumſtance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hoſtilities. In order to ſecure a communication by ſea to receive the neceſſary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a ſmall garriſon behind him at Vera Cruz, which has ſince become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He underſtood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garriſon in his abſence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action, that

Montezuma

Montezuma himſelf was privy to this violence, and had iſſued orders that the head of the ſlain Spaniard ſhould be carried through his provinces, to deſtroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in perſon to the emperor, attended by a few of his moſt experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez ſeemed extremely ready to believe him, though at the ſame time he alledged that the Spaniards in general would never be perſuaded of it unleſs he returned along with them to their reſidence, which would remove all jealouſy between the two nations. The ſucceſs of this interview ſhewed the ſuperiority of the European addreſs. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and ſurrounded by his guards, gave himſelf up a priſoner, to be diſpoſed of according to the inclination of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accompliſhed. The Americans had the higheſt reſpect, or rather a ſuperſtitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and at the ſame time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his taſtes and paſſions, maintained the eaſy ſovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their reſpect? Montezuma was the firſt to teach them more politeneſs. Was there a tumult, excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards? Montezuma aſcended the battlements of his priſon, and harangued his Mexicans into order and ſubmiſſion. This farce continued a long while; but on one of theſe occaſions, when Montezuma was ſhamefully diſgracing his character by juſtifying the enemies of his country, a ſtone, from an unknown hand, ſtruck him on the temple, which in a few days occaſioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated ſo ſtrongly with the Spaniards, elect a new prince, the famous Gatimozin, who from the beginning diſcovered an implacable animoſity againſt the Spaniſh name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans ruſhed againſt thoſe very men, whom a little before they had offered to worſhip. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly eſtabliſhed to be expelled from Mexico. The immenſe tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, beſides an amazing quantity of precious ſtones, a fifth part of which was diſtributed among the ſoldiers, ſtimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to periſh rather than part with ſo precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no ſmall efforts for independence; but their valour, and deſpair itſelf, gave way before what they called the Spaniſh thunder. Gatimozin and the empreſs were taken priſoners. The latter was the prince who, when he lay ſtretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him diſcover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, ſaid to his high prieſt, condemned to the ſame puniſhment, while making hideous cries, "Do you take me to lay on a bed of roſes?" The high prieſt remained ſilent, and died in an act of obedience to his ſovereign. Cortez, by getting a ſecond emperor into his hands, made a complete conqueſt of Mexico; with which the Caſtille D'Or, Darien and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez, and his ſoldiers, were employed in reducing Mexico

they got intelligence of another great empire, ſituated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was ſaid to abound in gold and ſilver, and precious ſtones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America, which deſerved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spaniſh government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not chuſe to adventure on new enterprizes; certain it is, that this extenſive country, more important than Mexico itſelf, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence, of three private perſons. The names of theſe were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a prieſt, and a man of conſiderable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the ſoul of the enterprize, could neither read nor write. They ſailed over into Spain, and without difficulty, obtained a grant of what they ſhould conquer. Pizarro then ſet out for the conqueſt of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horſe, and 12 ſmall pieces of cannon, drawn by ſlaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the ſame prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spaniſh nation, and were beſide, of a character ſtill more ſoft and unwarlike, it need not ſurprize us, after what has been ſaid of the conqueſt of Mexico, that with this inconſiderable force, Pizarro ſhould make a deep impreſſion on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumſtances likewiſe which conſpired to aſſiſt him, and which, as they diſcover ſomewhat of the hiſtory, religion, and ſtate of the human mind in this immenſe continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of thoſe uncommon men who, calm and diſpaſſionate themſelves, can obſerve the paſſions of their fellow creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He obſerved that the people of Peru were naturally ſuperſtitious, and had a particular veneration for the ſun. He pretended therefore to be deſcended from that luminary, whoſe worſhip he was ſent to eſtabliſh, and whoſe authority he was entitled to bear. By this ſtory, romantic as it appears, he eaſily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his juriſdiction; a larger he ſtill ſubdued by his arms; but both the force, and the deceit, he employed for the moſt laudable purpoſes. He united and civilized the diſtreſſed and barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arts; he ſoftened them by the inſtitutions of a benevolent religion; in ſhort, there was no part of America, where agriculture and the arts were ſo aſſiduouſly cultivated, and where the people were of ſo mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes ſucceeded Mango, diſtinguiſhed by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as deſcendants of their great God the Sun. The twelfth of theſe was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spaniſh Peru. To ſecure himſelf in the poſſeſſion, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this marriage was ſprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Hueſcar, of a different mother, had claimed the ſucceſſion to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Hueſcar, as a priſoner,

ſoner, in the tower of Cuſco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble, and diſjointed ſtate, was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro made his arrival. The ominous predictions of religion too, as in moſt other caſes, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the ſubjection of the empire, by unknown perſons, whoſe deſcription exactly correſponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In theſe circumſtances, Atabalipa, inſtead of oppoſing the Spaniards, ſet himſelf to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whoſe temper partook of the meanneſs of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with thoſe he called Barbarians, but who, however, though leſs acquainted with the cruel art of deſtroying their fellow creatures, were more civilized than himſelf. While he was engaged in conference therefore with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previouſly inſtructed, furiouſly attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were preſſing forward, without regard to their particular ſafety, to defend the ſacred perſon of their monarch, ſeized Atabalipa himſelf, whom they carried off to the Spaniſh quarters. Pizarro, with the ſovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the maſter of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as ſtrongly attached to their emperor, as the Mexicans themſelves. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ranſom. On this occaſion the ancient ornaments, amaſſed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treaſures of the moſt magnificent temples, were brought out to ſave him, who was the ſupport of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negociation, by which he propoſed, without releaſing the emperor, to get into his poſſeſſion an immenſe quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro cauſed ſome embarraſſment in his affairs. The friendſhip, or rather the external ſhew of friendſhip between theſe men, was ſolely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprizing ſpirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous, that might gratify their ruling paſſion. When their intereſts therefore happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any meaſures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the moſt conſiderable ſhare of the treaſure, ariſing from the emperor's ranſom, becauſe he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro inſiſted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, leſt the common cauſe might ſuffer by any rupture between them, this diſpoſition was agreed to. The ranſom is paid in without delay, a ſum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice. It exceeded 1,500,000 l. ſterling, and conſidering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the ſhares of the chief commanders and officers, each private ſoldier had above 2000 l. Engliſh money. With ſuch fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be ſubjected to the rigours of military diſcipline. They inſiſted on being diſbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, ſenſible that avarice would ſtill detain a number in his army, and that those who returned with ſuch magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to purſue the ſame plan for acquiring gold. Theſe wiſe reflections were abundantly verified; it was impoſſible to ſend out better recruiting officers, than thoſe who had themſelves ſo much profited by the field; new ſoldiers conſtantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immenſe ranſom was only a farther reaſon for detaining Atabal

in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and policy, which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that by his command Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a sham charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances of equal impertinence. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother Huescar had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huescar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huescar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even were at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another, their battles accustomed the harmless people to blood; and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the course of those quarrels among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and after many difficulties made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him, lay to the southward of Cusco, and that was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in question.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own, as he judged necessary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at a great distance, they were well nigh successful. The latter, however, no

ſooner got notice of the ſiege of Cuſco, than, relinquiſhing all views of diſtant conqueſts, he returned, to ſecure the grand object of their former labours. He raiſed the ſiege with infinite ſlaughter of the aſſailants; but having obtained poſſeſſion of this city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This diſpute occaſioned a long and bloody ſtruggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the reſentment fierce on both ſides, becauſe the fate of the vanquiſhed was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the ſecurity of a rival, in whoſe dangers and triumphs he had long ſhared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprize, he had been intimately connected. During the courſe of this civil war, many Peruvians ſerved in the Spaniſh armies, and learned, from the practice of Chriſtians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable reſolution. They ſaw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguiſhable reſentment and avarice, and they conjectured that theſe paſſions would never permit their conteſts to ſubſide. Let us retire, ſaid they, from among them, let us fly to our mountains; they will ſpeedily deſtroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This reſolution was inſtantly put in practice; the Peruvians diſperſed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each ſide been exactly equal, this ſingular policy of the natives of Peru, might have been attended with ſucceſs. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never ſince ventured to make head againſt the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now ſole maſter of the field, and of the richeſt empire in the world, was ſtill urged on by his ambition, to undertake new enterprizes. The ſouthern countries of America, into which he had ſome time before diſpatched Almagro, offered the richeſt conqueſt. Towards this quarter the mountain of Potoſi, compoſed of entire ſilver, had been diſcovered, the ſhell of which only remains at preſent. He therefore followed the tract of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, paſſed the Andes, and ſailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immenſe navigation, which diſcovered a rich and delightful country, but as it is moſtly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever ſince, neglect it. Pizarro meeting with repeated ſucceſs, and having no ſuperior to controul, nor rival to keep him within bounds, now gave looſe reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the baſeſt tyranny and cruelty againſt all who had not concurred in his deſigns. This conduct raiſed a conſpiracy againſt him, to which he fell a ſacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himſelf had founded. The partiſans of old Almagro, declared his ſon of the ſame name the viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, tho' extremely well ſatisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain, who ſent out Vaca di Caſtro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wiſdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the moſt advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management the mines of Plata and Potoſi, which were formerly a matter of private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were ſilenced or cruſhed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommoda-

accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, ſince the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was reſtored to Peru. It ſeems, however, that De Caſtro had not been ſufficiently ſkilled, in gaining the favour of the Spaniſh miniſtry, by proper bribes or promiſes, which a miniſtry would always expect from the governor of ſo rich a country. By their advice, a council was ſent over to controul de Caſtro, and the colony was again unſettled. The parties but juſt extinguiſhed, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, ſet himſelf at the head of his brother's partiſans, with whom many new male-contents had united. It was now no longer a diſpute between governors, about the bounds of their juriſdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal ſubmiſſion to the king. He ſtrengthened daily, and even went ſo far as to behead a governor, who was ſent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spaniſh fleet in the South Seas, by whoſe means he propoſed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the ſituation of affairs, when the court of Spain, ſenſible of their miſtake in not ſending into America, men whoſe character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, diſpatched with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gaſga, a man differing only from Caſtro, by being of a more mild and inſinuating behaviour, but with the ſame love of juſtice, the ſame greatneſs of ſoul, and the ſame diſintereſted ſpirit. All thoſe who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked under his ſtandard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gaſga, forſook their old connections: the admiral was gained over by inſinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himſelf was offered a full indemnity, provided he ſhould return to the allegiance of the Spaniſh crown. But ſo intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than ſubmit to an officer of Spain. With thoſe of his partiſans therefore, who ſtill continued to adhere to his intereſt, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and taken priſoner. His execution followed ſoon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a ſacrifice to the ſecurity of the Spaniſh dominion over that country.

The conqueſt of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American hiſtory, which deſerves to be treated under the preſent head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent, or of the iſlands, if it contains either inſtruction, or entertainment, ſhall be handled under theſe particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever compoſes the character of the natives of America; and as theſe are extremely ſimilar all over this part of the globe, we ſhall ſpeak of them in general, in order to ſave continual repetitions, noticing at the ſame time, when we enter upon the deſcription of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

Of the original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE diſcovery of America has not only opened a new ſource of wealth to the buſy and commercial part of Europe, but an extenſive field of ſpeculation to the philoſopher, who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and obſerve the movements

of the human heart, or the operations of the human underſtanding, when untutored by ſcience, and untainted with corruption. So ſtriking ſeemed the diſparity between the inhabitants of Europe, and the natives of America, that ſome ſpeculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impoſſible they ſhould be of the ſame ſpecies, or derived from one common ſource. This concluſion, however, is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the neceſſaries of life, the force of cuſtom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumſtances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be diſcovered among them all, notwithſtanding the various ſhades which characteriſe nations, and diſtinguiſh them from each other.

When the thirſt of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immerſed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a ſtate of honeſt independence, and noble ſimplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively ſpeaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almoſt every European art; even agriculture itſelf, the moſt uſeful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very ſparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the neceſſaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and foreſts ſupplied in great abundance. This exerciſe, which among them is a moſt ſerious occupation, gives a ſtrength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The ſame cauſe perhaps renders their bodies in general, where the rays of the ſun are not too violent, uncommonly ſtraight and well proportioned. Their muſcles are firm and ſtrong; their bodies and heads flattiſh, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenance fierce, their hair long, black, lank, and as ſtrong as that of a horſe. The colour of their ſkin is a reddiſh brown, admired among them, and heightened by the conſtant uſe of bears fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumſtances and way of life. A people who are conſtantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious ſubſiſtence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be ſuppoſed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of ſpirits. The Indians therefore are in general grave even to ſadneſs; they have nothing of the giddy vivacity peculiar to ſome nations of Europe, and they deſpiſe it. Their behaviour to thoſe about them is regular, modeſt, and reſpectful. Ignorant of the arts of amuſement, of which that of ſaying trifles agreeably is one of the moſt conſiderable, they never ſpeak but when they have ſomething important to obſerve; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with ſome meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almoſt continually engaged in purſuits, which to them are of the higheſt importance. Their ſubſiſtence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands, and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be loſt by the ſmalleſt inattention to the deſigns of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the neceſſaries of life in greateſt abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations

for the ſame reaſonextremely ſmall, when compared with civiliſed ſocieties, in which induſtry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vaſt number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders uſeful to one another. Theſe ſmall tribes live at an immenſe diſtance; they are ſeparated by a deſart frontier, and hid in the boſom of impenetrable and almoſt boundleſs foreſts.

There is eſtabliſhed in each ſociety a certain ſpecies of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with exceeding little variation; becauſe over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly ſimilar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great inſtruments of ſubjection in poliſhed ſocieties, an American has no method by which he can render himſelf conſiderable among his companions, but by a ſuperiority in perſonal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very laviſh in her perſonal diſtinctions, where all enjoy the ſame education, all are pretty much equal, and will deſire to remain ſo. Liberty therefore is the prevailing paſſion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this ſentiment, is better ſecured than by the wiſeſt political regulations. They are very far, however, from deſpiſing all ſort of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wiſdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they enliſt under the banners of the chief, in whoſe valour and military addreſs they have learned to repoſe their confidence. In every ſociety therefore there is to be conſidered the power of the chief and of the elders: and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a ſpecies of ariſtocracy. Among thoſe tribes which are moſt engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, becauſe the idea of having a military leader, was the firſt ſource of his ſuperiority, and the continual exigencies of the ſtate requiring ſuch a leader, will continue to ſupport and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather perſuaſive than coercive; he is reverenced as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice, and one act of ill-judged violence would pull him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be conſidered as an ariſtocracy, have no more power. In ſome tribes indeed there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whoſe influence being conſtantly augmented by time, is more conſiderable. But this ſource of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex, to the merit of our contemporaries, that of their fore-fathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In moſt countries therefore, age alone is ſufficient for acquiring reſpect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only ſource of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among thoſe perſons buſineſs is conducted with the utmoſt ſimplicity, and which may recal to thoſe who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the moſt early ages. The heads of families meet together in a houſe or cabin, appointed for the purpoſe. Here the buſineſs is diſcuſſed, and here thoſe of the nation, diſtinguiſhed for their eloquence or wiſdom, have an opportunity of diſplaying thoſe talents. Their orators, like thoſe of Homer, expreſs themſelves in a bold figurative ſtile, ſtronger than refined, or rather ſoftened nations can well bear, and with geſtures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expreſſive. When the buſineſs is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feaſt upon the occaſion, of which almoſt the whole nation partakes. The feaſt is accompanied

panied with a ſong, in which the real, or fabulous exploits of their fore-fathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like thoſe of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind, and their muſic and dancing accompanies every feaſt.

It often happens, that thoſe different tribes or nations, ſcattered as they are at an immenſe diſtance from one another, meet in their excurſions after prey. If there ſubſiſts no animoſity between them, which ſeldom is the caſe, they behave in the moſt friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a ſtate of war, or if there has been no previous intercourſe between them, all who are not friends, are deemed enemies, they fight with the moſt ſavage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their moſt common motive for entering into war, when it does not ariſe from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themſelves for the death of ſome loſt friends, or to acquire priſoners, who may aſſiſt them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their ſociety. Theſe wars are either undertaken by ſome private adventurers, or at the inſtance of the whole community. In the latter caſe, all the young men, who are diſpoſed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their deſign to accompany him. For every thing among theſe people is tranſacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, faſts ſeveral days, during which he converſes with no one, and is particularly careful to obſerve his dreams, which the preſumption natural to ſavages, generally renders as favourable as he could deſire. A variety of other ſuperſtitions and ceremonies are obſerved. One of the moſt hideous is ſetting the war kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which among ſome nations muſt formerly have been the caſe, ſince they ſtill continue to expreſs it in clear terms, and uſe an emblem ſignificant of the ancient uſage. Then they diſpatch a porcelane, or large ſhell to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

> " A generous friendſhip no cold medium knows,
> " But with one love, with one reſentment glows."

They think that thoſe in their alliance muſt not only adopt their enmities, but have their reſentment wound up to the ſame pitch with themſelves. And indeed no people carry their friendſhips, or their reſentment, ſo far as they do; and this is what ſhould be expected from their peculiar circumſtances; that principle in human nature, which is the ſpring of the ſocial affections, acts with ſo much the greater force, the more it is reſtrained. The Americans, who live in ſmall ſocieties, who ſee few objects and few perſons, become wonderfully attached to theſe objects and perſons, and cannot be deprived of them, without feeling themſelves miſerable. Their ideas are too confined, their breaſts are too narrow to entertain the ſentiments of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumſtance, while it makes them cruel and ſavage to an incredible degree, towards thoſe with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendſhips, and to the common tie which unites the members of the ſame tribe, or of thoſe different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection

tion, ſome facts we are going to relate, would excite our wonder without informing our reaſon, and we ſhould be bewildered in a number of particulars ſeemingly oppoſite to one another, without being ſenſible of the general cauſe from which they proceed.

Having finiſhed all the ceremonies previous to the war, they iſſue forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with ſtreaks of vermillion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance. Then they exchange their cloaths with their friends, and diſpoſe of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a conſiderable diſtance to receive thoſe laſt tokens of eternal friendſhip.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a ſurprize; and indeed in theſe they are ſuperior to all nations in the world. Accuſtomed to continual wandering in the foreſts, having their perceptions ſharpened by keen neceſſity, and living in every reſpect according to nature, their external ſenſes have a degree of acuteneſs which at firſt view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immenſe diſtance, by the ſmoak of their fires, which they ſmell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and diſtinguiſh with the utmoſt facility. They even diſtinguiſh the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the preciſe time when they paſſed, where an European could not, with all his glaſſes, diſtinguiſh footſteps at all. Theſe circumſtances, however, are of ſmall importance, becauſe their enemies are no leſs acquainted with them. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making uſe of any thing by which they might run the danger of a diſcovery. They light no fire to warm themſelves, or to prepare their victuals; they lie cloſe to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that cloſes the rear, diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refreſh themſelves, ſcouts are ſent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place, where they ſuſpect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes, and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, maſſacre all the children, women, and helpleſs old men, or make priſoners of as many as they can manage, or have ſtrength enough to be uſeful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprized of their deſign, and coming on in arms againſt them, they throw themſelves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to reſemble. Then they allow a part to paſs unmoleſted, when all at once, with a tremendous ſhout, riſing up from their ambuſh, they pour a ſtorm of muſket bullets on their foes. The party attacked, returns the ſame cry. Every one ſhelters himſelf with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party, as ſoon as they raiſe themſelves from the ground to give a ſecond fire. Thus does the battle continue until one party is ſo much weakened, as to be incapable of farther reſiſtance. But if the force on each ſide continues nearly equal, the fierce ſpirits of the ſavages, inflamed by the loſs of their friends, can no longer be reſtrained. They abandon this diſtant war, they ruſh upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and inſulting their enemies with the bitterеſt reproaches. A cruel combat enſues, death appears in a thouſand hideous forms which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouſe the fury of ſavages.

vages. They trample, they inſult over the dead bodies, tearing the ſcalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beaſts, and ſometimes devouring their fleſh. The flame rages on till it meets with no reſiſtance, then the priſoners are ſecured, thoſe unhappy men, whoſe fate is a thouſand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors ſet up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have loſt. They approach in a melancholy and ſevere gloom to their own village, a meſſenger is ſent to announce their arrival, and the women with frightful ſhrieks come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their huſbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders a circumſtantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of thoſe who have fallen, the ſhrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in theſe cries, according as each is moſt connected with the deceaſed, by blood or friendſhip. The laſt ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable tranſition, they paſs in a moment from the bitterneſs of ſorrow, to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the priſoners, whoſe fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characteriſes the ſavages.

We have already mentioned the ſtrength of their affections or reſentments. United as they are in ſmall ſocieties, connected within themſelves by the firmeſt ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the moſt intenſe warmth within the walls of their own village, ſeldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their reſentment is eaſily extended from the individual, who has injured them, to all others of the ſame tribe. The priſoners, who have themſelves the ſame feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The perſon, who has taken the captive, attends him to the cottage, where, according to the diſtribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to ſupply the loſs of a citizen. If thoſe who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occaſion for him, or their reſentment for the loſs of their friends be too high to endure the ſight of any connected with thoſe who were concerned in it, they ſentence him to death. All thoſe who have met with the ſame ſevere ſentence being collected, the whole nation is aſſembled at the execution, as for ſome great ſolemnity. A ſcaffold is erected, and the priſoners are tied to the ſtake, where they commence their death-ſong, and prepare for the enſuing ſcene of cruelty with the moſt undaunted courage. The enemies on the other ſide, are determined to put it to the proof, by the moſt refined and exquiſite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the fleſh with his teeth; a third thruſts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he ſmoaks like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two ſtones; they pull off the fleſh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gaſhes in the fleſhy parts of his limbs, which they ſear immediately with red hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off this fleſh, thus mangled and roaſted, bit by bit, devouring it with greedineſs, and

ſmearing

ſmearing their faces with the blood in an enthuſiaſm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the fleſh, they twiſt the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and ſnapping them, whilſt others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs in every way that can encreaſe the torment. This continues often five or ſix hours, and ſometimes, ſuch is the ſtrength of the ſavages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they ſhall inflict, and to refreſh the ſtrength of the ſufferer, who, wearied out with ſuch a variety of unheard of torments, often falls into ſo profound a ſleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him and renew his ſufferings. He is again faſtened to the ſtake, and again they renew their cruelty; they ſtick him all over with ſmall matches of wood, that eaſily takes fire but burns ſlowly; they continually run ſharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thruſt out his eyes; and laſtly, after having burned his fleſh from the bones with ſlow fires; after having ſo mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in ſuch a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the ſkin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on the naked ſkull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind, and ſtaggering with pain and weakneſs, aſſaulted and pelted upon every ſide with clubs and ſtones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every ſtep, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compaſſion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is ſucceeded by a feaſt as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into ſomething worſe than furies, act their parts, and even outdo the men in this ſcene of horror, while the principal perſons of the country ſit round the ſtake ſmoaking and looking on without the leaſt emotion. What is moſt extraordinary, the ſufferer himſelf, in the little intervals of his torments, ſmoaks too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed during the whole time of his execution, there ſeems a conteſt between him and them which ſhall exceed, they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmneſs and conſtancy almoſt above human: not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exaſperate them to a perfect madneſs and fury, he continues his inſults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out himſelf more exquiſite methods, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwiſe, as it would be for any European to ſuffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early inſtitution, and a ferocious thirſt of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the ſavage in the face of his tormentors. *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; thoſe who fear them are cowards; they are leſs than women; life is nothing to thoſe that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with deſpair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the laſt drop.*

I do not dwell upon theſe circumſtances of cruelty, which ſo degrade human

human nature, out of choice; but, as all who mention the cuſtoms of this people have inſiſted upon their behaviour in this reſpect very particularly, and as it ſeems neceſſary to give a true idea of their character, I did not chuſe to omit it. And what is ſtill more important, it ſerves to ſhew in the ſtrongeſt light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity, to what a pitch the paſſions of men may be carried, when untamed by the refinements of poliſhed ſociety, when let looſe from the government of reaſon, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Chriſtianity; a religion that teaches compaſſion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practiſed in other inſtitutions; and it will make us more ſenſible than ſome appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civilized life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of ſome of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewiſe the ſting of our natural vices, and ſoftened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the hiſtory of mankind, as I have already obſerved, forms a ſtronger contraſt than this cruelty of the ſavages towards thoſe with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who conſiſt of all thoſe who live in the ſame village, or are in alliance with it: among theſe all things are common; and this, though it may in part ariſe from their not poſſeſſing very diſtinct notions of ſeparate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the ſtrength of their attachment; becauſe in every thing elſe, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to ſerve their friends. Their houſes, their proviſion, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a gueſt. Has any one of theſe ſucceeded ill in his hunting? Has his harveſt failed? or is his houſe burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled, until by ſome treachery or ſurprize he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place great enough to protect the object; he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, he pierces the moſt impracticable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous bogs and deſerts for ſeveral hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirſt, with patience and chearfulneſs, in hopes of ſurprizing his enemy, on whom he exerciſes the moſt ſhocking barbarities, even to the eating of his fleſh. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip or their enmity; and ſuch indeed in general is the character of all ſtrong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have ſaid reſpecting the Indians would be a faint picture did we omit obſerving the force of their friendſhip, which principally appears by the treatment of their dead. When any one of the ſociety is cut off, he is lamented by the whole: on this occaſion a thouſand ceremonies are practiſed, denoting the moſt lively ſorrow. Of theſe the moſt remarkable, as it diſcovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feaſt of the dead, or the feaſt of ſouls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order, and nothing is omitted that it may be celebrated with the utmoſt pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be preſent, and

to join in the ſolemnity. At this time all who have died ſince the laſt ſolemn occaſion, (which is renewed every ten years among ſome tribes, and every eight among others) are taken out of their graves; thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the villages are diligently ſought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcaſſes.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general diſinterment. I cannot deſcribe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the moſt authentic account of thoſe nations.

Without queſtion, ſays he, the opening of theſe tombs diſplays one of the moſt ſtriking ſcenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human miſery, in ſo many images of death, wherein ſhe ſeems to take a pleaſure to paint herſelf in a thouſand various ſhapes of horror, in the ſeveral carcaſes, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a ſort of parchment upon their bones; ſome look as if they were baked and ſmoaked, without any appearance of rottenneſs; ſome are juſt turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilſt others are all ſwarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to ſtrike us moſt, the horror of ſo ſhocking a ſight, or the tender piety and affection of theſe poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deſerves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they diſcharge this melancholy duty of their tenderneſs; gathering up carefully even the ſmalleſt bones; handling the carcaſes, diſguſtful as they are, with every thing loathſome, cleanſing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their ſhoulders through tireſome journeys of ſeveral days, without being diſcouraged from the offenſiveneſs of the ſmell, and without ſuffering any other emotions to ariſe than thoſe of regret, for having loſt perſons who were ſo dear to them in their lives, and ſo lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feaſt in honour of the dead, during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourſes which took place between them and their friends are piouſly called to mind. The ſtrangers, who have come ſometimes many hundred miles to be preſent on the occaſion, join in the tender condolance; and the women, by frightful ſhrieks, demonſtrate that they are pierced with the ſharpeſt ſorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from the cabbins for the general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each perſon attended by his family and friends, marches in ſolemn ſilence, bearing the dead body of a ſon, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the duſt of thoſe which were quite corrupted, are depoſited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they poſſeſs moſt valuable is interred with the dead. The ſtrangers are not wanting in their generoſity, and confer thoſe preſents which they have brought along with them for the purpoſe. Then all preſent go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preſerve with the moſt religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new mats, and over theſe with bark, on which they throw ſtones, wood, and earth. Then taking their laſt farewell, they return each to his own cabbin.

We have mentioned that in this ceremony the ſavages offer, as preſents

to

to the dead, whatever they value moſt highly. This cuſtom, which is univerſal among them, ariſes from a rude notion of the immortality of the ſoul. They believe this doctrine moſt firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the ſoul is ſeparated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it ſtill continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the ſame things with which it formerly was pleaſed. After a certain time, however, it forſakes this dreary manſion, and departs far weſtward into the land of ſpirits. They have even gone ſo far as to make a diſtinction between the inhabitants of the other world; ſome they imagine, particularly thoſe who in their life time have been fortunate in war, poſſeſs a high degree of happineſs, have a place for hunting and fiſhing, which never fails, and enjoy all ſenſual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The ſouls of thoſe, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or ſlain in war, are extremely miſerable after death. A future ſtate therefore is not at all conſidered among the ſavages as a place of retribution, as the reward of humble virtue, or as the puniſhment of proſperous vice. They rather judge of our happineſs in the next world by what we have enjoyed in the preſent.

Their taſte for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a ſtrong bias to their religion. Areſkoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field, and according as his diſpoſition is more or leſs favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or leſs ſucceſsful. Some nations worſhip the ſun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the hiſtory of the gods: traditions which reſemble the Grecian fables, but which are ſtill more abſurd and inconſiſtent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have ſome immediate occaſion for the aſſiſtance of their gods, they pay them no ſort of worſhip. Like all rude nations, however, they are ſtrongly addicted to ſuperſtition. They believe in the exiſtence of a number of good and bad genii or ſpirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happineſs or miſery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diſeaſes proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The miniſters of the genii are the jugglers, who are alſo the only phyſicians among the ſavages. Theſe jugglers are ſuppoſed to be inſpired by the good genii, moſt commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the aſſiſtance of the ſick, and are ſuppoſed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the diſeaſe, and in what way they muſt be treated. But theſe ſpirits are extremely ſimple in their ſyſtem of phyſic, and, in almoſt every diſeaſe, direct the juggler to the ſame remedy. The patient is incloſed in a narrow cabbin, in the midſt of which is a ſtone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well ſoaked with the warm vapour and his own ſweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him ſuddenly into the next river. This coarſe method, which coſts many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewiſe the uſe of ſome ſpecifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the ſavages are dextrous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of theſe remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are adminiſtered.

A general Deſcription of AMERICA.

THIS great weſtern continent, frequently denominated the new world, extends from the 80 deg. north, to the 56 deg. ſouth lat.; and where its breadth is known, from the 35 to the 136 deg. of weſt lon. from London, ſtretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greateſt breadth 3690. It ſees both hemiſpheres, has two ſummers and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is waſhed by the two great oceans. To the eaſtward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the weſt it has the Pacific, or great South-Sea, by which it is ſeparated from Aſia. By theſe ſeas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is compoſed of two great continents, one on the north, the other upon the ſouth, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a ſort of Iſthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part at Darien, ſo extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulph, which is formed between the Iſthmus, and the northern and ſouthern continents, lie an infinite multitude of iſlands, many of them large, moſt of them fertile, and denominated the Weſt-Indies, in contradiſtinction to the countries and iſlands of Aſia, beyond the cape of Good-Hope, which are called the Eaſt-Indies.

Before we begin to treat of ſeparate countries in their order, we muſt according to juſt method take notice of thoſe mountains and rivers, which diſdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America in general be not a mountainous country, it has the greateſt mountains in the world. In ſouth America the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to ſouth along the coaſt of the Pacific ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the Iſthmus of Darien, to the ſtreights of Magellan, they divide the whole ſouthern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are conſtantly covered with ſnow. In North America, which is chiefly compoſed of gentle aſcents or level plains, we know of no conſiderable mountains, except thoſe towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of our ſettlements, ſeparating our colonies from Canada and Louiſiana, which we call the Apalachian, or Alegeney mountains; if that may be conſidered as a mountain, which upon one ſide is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the reſt of the country.

America is, without queſtion, that part of the globe which is beſt watered; and that not only for the ſupport of life, and all the purpoſes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourſe of each part with the others. In North America, ſuch is the wiſdom and goodneſs of the Creator of the univerſe, thoſe vaſt tracts of country, ſituated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immenſe and unknown diſtance from the ocean, are watered by inland ſeas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give riſe to ſeveral great rivers, particularly the Miſſiſippi, running from north to ſouth till it falls into the gulph of Mexico, after a courſe,

courſe, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progreſs the vaſt tribute of the Illinois, the Miſaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers ſcarcely inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the north, the River St. Laurence, running a contrary courſe from the Miſſiſippi, till it empties itſelf into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almoſt navigable to their heads, lay open the inmoſt receſſes of this great continent, and afford ſuch an inlet for commerce, as muſt produce the greateſt advantages, whenever the country adjacent ſhall come to be fully inhabited, and by an induſtrious and civilized people. The eaſtern ſide of North America, which makes a part of the Britiſh empire, beſides the noble rivers Hudſon, Delaware, Suſquehana, and Potowmack, ſupplies ſeveral others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of our ſettlements are ſo advantageouſly interſected with navigable rivers and creeks, that our planters, without exaggeration, may be ſaid to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if poſſible, in this reſpect even more fortunate. It ſupplies much the two largeſt rivers (excepting the Miſſiſippi) in the world, the river of Amazones, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate River. The firſt riſing in Peru, not far from the South Sea, paſſes from weſt to eaſt, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a courſe of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata, riſes in the heart of the country, and having its ſtrength gradually augmented, by an acceſſion of many powerful ſtreams, diſcharges itſelf with ſuch vehemence into the ſea, as to make its taſte freſh for many leagues from land. Beſides theſe there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoquo is the moſt conſiderable.

A country of ſuch vaſt extent on each ſide of the equator, muſt neceſſarily have a variety of ſoils as well as climates. It is a treaſury of nature, producing moſt of the metals, minerals, plants, drugs, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and high perfection. The gold and ſilver of America has ſupplied Europe with ſuch immenſe quantities of thoſe valuable metals, that they are become vaſtly more common; ſo that the gold and ſilver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price ſet upon them before the diſcovery of America.

This country alſo produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other valuable ſtones, which by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewiſe to lower their value; and which, before the diſcovery of America, we were forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Aſia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoeſe, who then engroſſed the trade of the eaſtern world.

Tho' the Indians ſtill live in the quiet poſſeſſion of many large tracts, America, ſo far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies by three European nations, the Spaniards, Engliſh, and Portugueſe. The Spaniards, who, as they firſt diſcovered it, have the largeſt and richeſt portion, extending from New Mexico and Louiſiana, in North America, to the ſtreights of Magellan in the ſouth ſea, excepting the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have ſome forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they ſcarcely deſerve to be conſidered as proprietors of any part of the ſouthern continent.

Next to Spain, the moſt conſiderable proprietor of America is Great Britain

Britain, who derives her claim to North America, from the firſt diſcovery of that continent, by Sebaſtian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about ſix years after the diſcovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated ſolely to an iſland upon its coaſt. It was a long time before we made any attempt to ſettle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, firſt ſhewed the way by planting a colony in the ſouthern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his miſtreſs queen Elizabeth.

The French indeed, from this period until the concluſion of the late war, laid a claim to, and actually poſſeſſed Canada and Louiſiana, comprehending all that extenſive inland country, reaching from Hudſon's Bay on the north, to Mexico and the gulph of the ſame name on the ſouth; regions which all Europe could not people in the courſe of many ages: but no territory however extenſive, no empire however boundleſs, could gratify the ambition of that aſpiring nation; hence, under the moſt ſolemn treaties, they continued in a ſtate of hoſtility, making gradual advances upon the back of our ſettlements, and rendering their acquiſitions more ſecure and permanent by a chain of forts, well ſupplied with every engine of deſtruction, the hatchet and ſcalping knife not excepted. At the ſame time they laboured inceſſantly to gain the friendſhip of the Indians, whom they not only trained to the uſe of arms, but infuſed into theſe ſavages the moſt unfavourable opinion of the Engliſh, and the ſtrength of their nation. The Britiſh colonies thus hemmed in, and confined to a ſlip of land along the ſea coaſt, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and the natural enemies of Great Britain, began to take the alarm. The Britiſh empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total diſſolution. The colonies, in their diſtreſs, called out aloud to the mother country. The bulwarks of our iſland were ſent to their relief, accompanied with a reſpectable military force well appointed, and commanded by a ſet of heroes, the Scipios of the preſent age. A long war ſucceeded, with various ſucceſs, but the military genius of the Britiſh nation proving ſuperior, their arms bear down all oppoſition, the conflict becomes unequal, and the fate of North America is decided on the heights of Quebec. The French, if we may uſe the expreſſion, were fought out of Canada, and obliged to relinquiſh all their poſſeſſions in Louiſiana, eaſtward of the Miſſiſippi, ſuppoſed to be the fineſt tract of country, and the mildeſt climate in that part of the world.

Thus at an immenſe expence, and with the loſs of many brave men, our colonies were preſerved, ſecured, and extended ſo far, as to render it difficult to aſcertain the preciſe bounds of our empire in North America, to the northern and weſtern ſides; for to the northward, it would ſeem that we might extend our claims quite to the pole itſelf, nor does any nation ſeem inclined to diſpute the property of this northernmoſt country with us. If we ſhould chuſe to take our ſtand upon the northern extremity, and look towards the ſouth, we have a territory extending in that aſpect, from the pole to Cape Florida, in the gulph of Mexico, N. lat. 25, and conſequently near 4000 miles long in a direct line; which is the more valuable, as it includes the moſt temperate climates of this new world, and ſuch as are beſt ſuited to Britiſh conſtitutions. But to the weſtward, our boundaries reach to na-

tions unknown even to the native Indians of Canada. If we might hazard a conjecture, it is nearly equal to the extent of all Europe. This vaſt empire is all the way waſhed by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, and on the ſouth by the gulph of Mexico. We have already taken notice of the river St. Lawrence, the Miſſiſippi, the lakes of Canada, and other great bodies of water, which fertilize and enrich its northern and weſtern boundaries, as well as the interior parts.

In deſcribing the ſituation, extent, and boundaries of the numerous colonies which now compoſe this great empire, we have totally rejected the accounts given us by partial French writers, as well as thoſe of Salmon, and other Engliſh geographers, if men deſerve that name, who have wandered ſo widely from the truth, and who ſeem to be either unacquainted with the ſubject, or have been at no pains to conſult the lateſt and moſt authentic materials. This we thought neceſſary to premiſe, that the reader may be prepared for the following table, which he will find to differ widely from any book of geography hitherto publiſhed, being compoſed from the lateſt treaties and the beſt maps and drawings in conſequence of theſe treaties, the ſureſt guides in giving the geography of theſe important provinces.

The multitude of iſlands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided among the Spaniards, Engliſh, and French. The Dutch indeed poſſeſs three or four ſmall iſlands, which in any other hands would be of no conſequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deſerve to be named among the proprietors of America. We ſhall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning according to our method, with the north; but as Labrador or New Britain, and the countries round Hudſon's Bay, with thoſe vaſt inhoſpitable regions towards the pole, are little known, we can only include within the following table, the colonies that have been formed into regular governments, which bring us to the 50th degree north lat. viz.

The grand Diviſions of NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies.	Length	Breadt.	Chief Towns.	Diſt. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
Province of Quebec	800	200	Quebec		Great Britain
New Scotland	350	250	Hallifax		Ditto
New England	550	200	Boſton	2760 W.	Ditto
New York	300	150	New York		Ditto
New Jerſey	160	60	Perth Amboy		Ditto
Penſylvania	300	240	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	140	135	Anapolis		Ditto
Virginia	750	240	Williamſburg		Ditto
No. Carolina So. Carolina Georgia	700	380	Wilmington Charles-town Savannah		Ditto Ditto Ditto
Eaſt Florida Weſt Florida	500	440	St. Auguſtin Penſacola		Ditto Ditto
Louiſiana	Bounds undeter.		New Orleans	4080 S. W.	Spain
New Mexico & California	2000	1600	St. Fee St. Juan	4320 S. W.	Ditto Ditto
Mexico or New Spain	2000	600	Mexico	4900 S. W.	Ditto

The principal ISLANDS in North America belonging to Europeans are,

	Islands.	Length.	Breadt.	Chief Towns.	Belongs to
In the Gulph of St. Lawr.	Newfoundland	350	200	Placentia	Great Britain
	Cape Breton	110	80	Louiſburg	Ditto
	St. John's	60	30	Charlotte Town	Ditto
In the Atlan.	The Bermuda iſles	20,000 acres		St. George	Ditto
	The Bahama ditto	very numerous		Naſſau	Ditto
West-India iſlands, lying in the Atlantic between North and South America.	Jamaica	140	60	Kingſton	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St. Chriſtopher's	20	7	Baſſe-terre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and	each of theſe is		Charles-Town	Ditto
	Montſerrat	18 circum		Plymouth	Ditto
	Barbuda	20	12		Ditto
	Anguilla	30	10		Ditto
	Dominica	28	13		Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	18		Ditto
	Granada	30	15	Lewis	Ditto
	Tobago	32	9		Ditto
	Cuba	700	70	Havannah	Spain
	Hiſpaniola	450	150	St. Domingo	Ditto&France
	Porto Rico	100	40	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	90	60		Ditto
	Margaritta	40	24		Ditto
	Martinico	60	30	St. Peter's	France
	Guadalupe	45	38	Baſſ-terre	Ditto
	St. Lucia	23	12		Ditto
	St. Bartholomew	all of them			Ditto
	Deſeada, and	inconſiderable			Ditto
	Maragalante				Ditto
	St. Euſtatia	29	circum.	The Bay	Dutch
	Curaſſou	30	10		Ditto
	St. Thomas	15	circum.		Denmark
	St. Croix	30	10	Baſſe End	Ditto

Grand Diviſions of SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Length	Breadt.	Chief Cities.	Diſt. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
Terra Firma	1400	700	Panama	4650 S. W.	Spain
Peru	1800	500	Lima	5520 S. W.	Spain
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B.					
Guiana	780	480	Suriname Cayenne	3840 S. W.	Dutch French
Braſil	2500	700	St. Salvador	6000 S. W.	Portugal
Paraguay or Laplata	1500	1000	Buenos Ayres	6040 S. W.	Spain & Jeſuits
Chili	1200	500	St. Jago	6600 S. W.	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia.	The Spaniards took poſſeſſion of it, but did not think it worth while to ſettle there. 700 L. 300 B.				

BRITISH AMERICA.

NEW BRITAIN.

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudſon's bay, and commonly called the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, new North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen ſeas, about the pole, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt; by the bay and river of St. Lawrence and Canada, on the ſouth; and by unknown lands on the weſt.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being eternally covered with ſnow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occaſion a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the ſame latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are numerous in this country, and take their names generally from the Engliſh navigators and commanders, by whom they were firſt diſcovered; the principal bay is that of Hudſon, and the principal ſtraits are thoſe of Hudſon, Davies, and Belleiſle.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudſon's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is ſeen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth is incapable of any better production than ſome miſerable ſhrubs. Every kind of European ſeed, which we have committed to the earth, in this inhoſpitable climate, has hitherto periſhed; but in all probability, we have not tried the ſeed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in ſuch caſes, the place from whence the ſeed comes is of great moment. All this ſeverity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenneſs of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of 52; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are the mooſe deer, ſtags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, ſquirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geeſe, buſtards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fiſh, there are whales, morſes, ſeals, cod-fiſh, and a white fiſh, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at port Nelſon, in one ſeaſon, 90,000 partridges, which are here as large as hens, and 25,000 hares.

All the animals of theſe countries, are cloathed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals; when that ſeaſon is over, which holds only for three months, they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a ſurprizing phenomenon. But what is yet more ſurprizing, and what is indeed one of the moſt ſtriking things, that draw the moſt inattentive to an admiration of the wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance further in the deſcription of America, it may be proper to obſerve in general, that all the quadrupedes of this new world

are leſs than thoſe of the old; even ſuch as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never ſeen to improve. If with reſpect to ſize, we ſhould compare the animals of the new and the old world, we ſhould find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Aſiatic elephant, for inſtance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, which is the largeſt native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which ſome alſo call the American camel, is ſtill leſs. Their beaſts of prey are quite diveſted of that courage, which is ſo often fatal to man in Africa or Aſia. They have no lions, nor, properly ſpeaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed thoſe names to ſuch ravenous animals, as are there found moſt to reſemble thoſe of the antient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them, are deſpicable in compariſon of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Aſia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to meaſure ſix feet in length, without including the tail, while the congar, or American tyger, as ſome affect to call it, ſeldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore in the ſouthern parts of America, are different from thoſe in the ſouthern parts of the antient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but thoſe, which being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rain-deer, the ſtag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain, and Canada, as Ruſſia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the ſouth with us, are utterly unknown in ſouthern America. But if the quadrupedes of America be ſmaller than thoſe of the antient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wiſdom of the author of it, that the ſmalleſt animals multiply in the greateſt proportion. The goat, imported from Europe to ſouthern America, in a few generations becomes much leſs, but then it alſo becomes more prolific, and inſtead of one kid at a time, or two at the moſt, generally produces five, ſix, and ſometimes more. The wiſdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the ſame degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would ſoon be unequal to the conteſt, and we ſhould ſoon perceive them become the tyrants of thoſe who call themſelves the maſters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country ſhew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in cloathing themſelves, and in preſerving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where ſurrounds them, for the greateſt part of the year; in other reſpects they are very ſavage. In their ſhapes and faces they do not reſemble the Americans who live to the ſouthward; they are much more like the Laplanders and Samoeids of Europe already deſcribed, from whom they are probably deſcended. The other Americans ſeem to be of a Tartar original.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of theſe northern ſeas and countries, was owing to a project ſtarted in England for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage to China, and the Eaſt-Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet compleated. Forbiſher only diſcovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtraits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John David ſailed from Portſmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coaſts, but he ſeems never to have entered

the bay. Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure, the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and his third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the ſtraits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to 80 degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter, and world of froſt and ſnow, he ſtaid here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared in the beginning of 1611 to purſue his diſcoveries; but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips, without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinied, ſeized upon him, and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy ſeas, in an open boat. Hudſon and his companions were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but the ſhip and the reſt of the men returned home.

The laſt attempt towards a diſcovery was made in 1746 by captain Ellis, who wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half; but though the adventurers failed in the original purpoſe, for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, may be of great advantage to this country. The vaſt countries which ſurround Hudſon's Bay, as we have already obſerved, abound with animals, whoſe fur and ſkins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not conſiſt of above nine or ten perſons, for the excluſive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever ſince with great benefit to the private men, who compoſe the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this excluſive company, whoſe intereſted, not to ſay iniquitous ſpirit has been the ſubject of long and juſt complaint. The company employ four ſhips, and 130 ſeamen. They have four forts, viz. Churchill, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, which ſtand on the weſt ſide of the bay, and are garriſoned by 186 men. They export commodities to the value of 16,000 l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340 l. which yield to the revenue 3,734 l. This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's Bay. This commerce, ſmall as it is, affords immenſe profits to the company, and even ſome advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their ſkins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, ſuch things are ſent, of which we have the greateſt plenty, and which in the mercantile phraſe, are drugs with us. Though the workmanſhip too happen to be in many reſpects ſo deficient, that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the ſkins and furs we bring from Hudſon's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. Theſe circumſtances tend to prove inconteſtibly the immenſe benefit that would redound to Great Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudſon's Bay, ſince even its preſent reſtrained trade is ſo advantageous. This company, it is probable, do not find their trade ſo advantageous now, as it was before we got poſſeſſion of Canada. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fiſhery. Great Britain has no ſettlement here, though the annual produce of the fiſhery amounting to upward of 49,050 l. and the natural advantages of the country ſhould encourage us to ſet about this deſign.

CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	800	between	61 and 81 weſt longitude.
Breadth	200		45 and 52 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THE French comprehended under the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claim part of New Scotland, New England and New York, on the eaſt; and to the weſt, extending it as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which they have been able to cultivate, and which bore the face of a colony, lay chiefly upon the banks of the river St. Lawrence, and the numerous ſmall rivers falling into that ſtream. This being reduced by the Britiſh arms in the late war, is now formed into a Britiſh colony, called the Province of Quebec. *See the Royal Proclamation.*

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this extenſive province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above, but as it is much further from the ſea, and more northerly than a great part of theſe provinces, it has a much ſeverer winter, though the air is generally clear; but like moſt of thoſe American tracts, that do not lie too far to the northward, the ſummers are very hot and exceeding pleaſant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the ſoil is in general very good, and in many parts extremely fertile, in wheat, barley, rye, with other ſorts of grains, fruits and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The iſle of Orleans near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richneſs of their ſoil. The meadow grounds in Canada which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of great and ſmall cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of Britiſh America, and as Canada, ſtretching a conſiderable way upon the back of our other ſettlements, contains almoſt all the different ſpecies of wood, and animals, that are found in theſe colonies, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them here at ſome length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America, contain the greateſt foreſts in the world. They are a continued wood not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itſelf. Nothing is more magnificent to the ſight; the trees loſe themſelves in the clouds, and there is ſuch a prodigious variety of ſpecies, that even among thoſe perſons who have taken moſt pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are deſcribing, produces amongſt others, two ſorts of pines, the white and the red; four ſorts of firs; two ſorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three ſorts of aſh-trees, the free, the mungrel and the baſtard; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; vaſt numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which, made out of one piece, will contain 20 perſons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they ſew together with the inner rind, and daub over the ſeams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter reſembling pitch, to

prevent their leaking; and the ribs of theſe canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitation in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are alſo found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infuſed in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called Alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow ſeveral tufts of flowers, which, when ſhaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into ſugar, the ſeed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the ſun-plant, which reſembles a marigold, and grows to the height of ſeven or eight feet; Turky corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire; and the hop-plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in ſome of the mountains, we are told, ſilver has been found, though we have not heard any great advantage made of it as yet. This country alſo abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Deſprairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all ſwallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river iſſues from the lake Ontario, and taking its courſe north-eaſt, waſhes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile iſlands. It continues the ſame courſe, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the ſea, where it is navigable for large veſſels, and below Quebec, 320 miles from the ſea, it becomes broad, and ſo deep that ſhips of the line contributed, in the laſt war, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progreſs innumerable ſtreams, this great river falls into the ocean at cape Roſieres, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intenſe, and the ſea boiſterous. In its progreſs it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and iſlands, many of them fruitful and extremely pleaſant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence, is that only upon which the French (now ſubjects of Great-Britain) have ſettlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is nothing improbable that Canada, and thoſe vaſt regions to the weſt, will be enabled of themſelves to carry on a conſiderable trade upon the great lakes of freſh water, which theſe countries environ. Here are five lakes, the ſmalleſt of which is a piece of ſweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not leſs than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oſwego, longer, but not ſo broad, is about the ſame extent. That of the Huron ſpreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not leſs than 300, as is that of Michigan, though like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains ſeveral large iſlands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of theſe are navigable by any veſſels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the paſſage between Erie and Ontario, is interrupted by a ſtupendous fall or cataract, which is called the falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock croſſes it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can expreſs the conſternation of travellers at ſeeing ſo great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from ſo great an height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing

appearing white as ſnow, being all converted into foam, through thoſe violent agitations. The noiſe of this fall is often heard at the diſtance of fifteen miles, and ſometimes much farther. The vapour ariſing from the fall may ſometimes be ſeen at a great diſtance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of ſmoak, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the ſun, and the poſition of the traveller, favours. Many beaſts and fowls here loſe their lives, by attempting to ſwim, or croſs the ſtream in the rapids above the fall, and are found daſhed in pieces below, and ſometimes the Indians through careleſsneſs or drunkenneſs, have met with the ſame fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by ſuch a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already obſerved, is the outlet of theſe lakes; by which they diſcharge themſelves into the ocean. The French have built forts at the ſeveral ſtraits, by which theſe lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the laſt of them communicates with the river. By theſe they effectually ſecured to themſelves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] Theſe make the moſt curious, and hitherto the moſt intereſting part of the natural hiſtory of Canada. It is to the ſpoils of theſe that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and moſt of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been deſcribing. The animals that find ſhelter and nouriſhment in the immenſe foreſts of Canada, and which indeed traverſe the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weſels, ſquirrels of a large ſize and greyiſh hue, hares, and rabbits. The ſouthern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a ſmall ſize, divers ſorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marſhes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, ſwarm with otters, beavers or caſtors, of which the white are highly valued, being ſcarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though reſembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the moſt curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs ſixty or ſeventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The ſavages, who waged a continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in ſociety, and was governed by a leader, reſembling their own ſachem or prince. It muſt indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to ſerve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and ſeverity of it, are ſufficient to ſhew the near approaches of inſtinct to reaſon, and even in ſome inſtances the ſuperiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and ſtraw-colour; but it is obſerved, that the lighter their colour, the leſs quantity of fur they are cloathed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the ſkin before it is applied to any uſe; the green are the furs that are worn, after being ſewed to one another, by the Indians, who beſmear

beſmear them with unctuous ſubſtances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and Engliſh have of late found the ſecret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and ſtockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Beſides the fur, this uſeful animal produces the true caſtoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the teſticles: the value of this drug is well known. The fleſh of the beaver is a moſt delicious food, but when boiled it has a diſagreeable reliſh.

The muſk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver, (weighing about five or ſix pounds) which it reſembles in every thing but its tail; and it affords a very ſtrong muſk.

The elk is of the ſize of a horſe or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling-ſickneſs, are aſcribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its fleſh is very agreeable and nouriſhing, and its colour a mixture of light-grey and dark-red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no graſs, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he ſometimes ſprings furiouſly on his purſuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal ſpends his fury on theſe, he takes proper meaſures to diſpatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail ſo long, that Charlevoix ſays he twiſted it ſeveral times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the ſnout to the tail. It is ſaid, that this animal, winding himſelf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twiſt his ſtrong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffaloe, a kind of wild ox, has much the ſame appearance with thoſe of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly eſteemed. The fleſh of the female is very good; and the buffaloe hides are as ſoft and pliable as chamoes leather, but ſo very ſtrong, that the bucklers which the Indians make uſe of are hardly penetrable by a muſket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domeſtic animal, but differs in no other reſpect from thoſe of Europe. Wolves are ſcarce in Canada, but they afford the fineſt furs in all the country: their fleſh is white, and good to eat; and they purſue their prey to the tops of the talleſt trees. The black foxes are greatly eſteemed, and very ſcarce; but thoſe of other colours are more common: and ſome on the Upper Miſſiſippi are of a ſilver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thouſand antic tricks, and then ſpring upon and devour them. The Canadian poll-cat has a moſt beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but his urine, the ſmell of which is nauſeous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it ſprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the aſſailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful ſilver colour, with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which ſhe opens and ſhuts at pleaſure; and in that places her young when purſued. Here are three ſorts of ſquirrels; the called the flying ſquirrel will leap 40 paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is eaſily tamed, and is very lively,

cept when aſleep, which is often the caſe; and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's ſleeve, pocket or muff; he firſt pitches on his maſter, whom he will diſtinguiſh among 20 perſons. The Canadian porcupine is leſs than a middling dog; when roaſted, he eats full as well as a ſucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from thoſe in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two ſorts of bears here, one of a reddiſh, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the moſt dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unleſs when wounded, or oppreſſed with hunger. They run themſelves very poor in the month of July, when it is ſomewhat dangerous to meet them, and they are ſaid to ſupport themſelves during the winter, when the ſnow lies from four to ſix feet deep, by ſucking their paws. Scarce any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater ſolemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed ſeveral in one day, is more eagerly ſought after than that of one who has rendered himſelf famous in war. The reaſon is, becauſe the chace ſupplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goſhawks, tercols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they ſpread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance; woodcocks are ſcarce in Canada, but ſnipes, and other water-game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is ſaid by ſome writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, ſwallows, and larks; no leſs than 22 different ſpecies of ducks, and a great number of ſwans, turkeys, geeſe, buſtards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a diſtance from houſes. The Canadian woodpecker is a beautiful bird. Thruſhes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortelan, very ſhewy, and remarkable for announcing the return of ſpring. The fly-bird is thought to be the moſt beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chafer, and he makes a noiſe with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-ſnake only deſerves attention. Some of them are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is moſt remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is ſcaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is ſaid there grows every year one ring, or row of ſcales; ſo that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horſe by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noiſe, from which it has its name. The bite of this ſerpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant which is called rattle-ſnake herb, the root of which (ſuch is the goodneſs of Providence) is a certain antidote againſt the venom of this ſerpent, and that with the moſt ſimple preparation, for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaiſter to the wound. The rattle-ſnake ſeldom bites paſſengers, unleſs it is provoked, and never darts itſelf at any perſon without firſt rattling three times with its tail. When purſued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itſelf round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itſelf with great fury and violence againſt its purſuers: nevertheleſs, the ſavages chace it, and find its fleſh very good, and being alſo of medicinal quality it is uſed by the American apothecaries in particular caſes.

Some writers are of opinion that the fiſheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the

the fur trade. The river St. Lawrence contains perhaps the greateſt variety of any in the world, and theſe in the greateſt plenty and of the beſt ſorts.

Beſides the great variety of other fiſh in the rivers and lakes, are ſea-wolves, ſea-cows, porpoiſes, the lencornet, the goberque, the ſea-plaiſe, ſalmon, trout, turtle, lobſters, the chaouraſou, ſturgeon, the achigau, the gilthead, tunny, ſhad, lamprey, ſmelts, conger-eels, mackarel, ſoals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The ſea-wolf, ſo called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largeſt are ſaid to weigh 2000 pounds; their fleſh is good eating: but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their ſkins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not ſo fine as Morocco leather, they preſerve their freſhneſs better, and are leſs liable to cracks. The ſhoes and boots made of thoſe ſkins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and laſting covers for ſeats. The Canadian ſea-cow is larger than the ſea-wolf, but reſembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickneſs and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoiſes of the river St. Lawrence are ſaid to yield a hogſhead of oil; and of their ſkins waiſtcoats are made, which are exceſſive ſtrong and muſket proof. The lencronet is a kind of kuttle-fiſh, quite round, or rather oval; there are three ſorts of them, which differ only in ſize; ſome being as large as a hogſhead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the laſt, and that with a torch: they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taſte and ſmell of a ſmall cod. The ſea-plaiſe is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaouraſou is an armed fiſh, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, reſembling a pike; but is covered with ſcales that are proof againſt a dagger: its colour is a ſilver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bony ſubſtance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal ſo well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water: but we have few inſtances of fiſh making prey of the feathered creation, which this fiſh does, however, with much art. He conceals himſelf among the canes and reeds, in ſuch a manner that nothing is to be ſeen beſides his weapon, which he holds raiſed perpendicularly, above the ſurface of the water: the fowls, which come to take reſt, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it, but they are no ſooner alighted, than the fiſh opens his throat, and makes ſuch a ſudden motion to ſeize his prey, that it ſeldom eſcapes him. This fiſh is an inhabitant of the lakes. The ſturgeon is both a freſh and ſalt-water fiſh, taken on the coaſt of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a ſmall kind of ſturgeon, the fleſh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fiſh peculiar to the river St. Lawrence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from thoſe of the Nile.

INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Lawrence, above Quebec, were vaſtly populous; but we cannot preciſely determine the number of French and Engliſh ſettled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the encreaſe. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almoſt innumerable; but their people are obſerved to decreaſe in population where the Europeans are mo

moſt numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond. But as liberty is the ruling paſſion of the Indians, we may naturally ſuppoſe that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more diſtant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the little river, about 320 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of ſlate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houſes in both are ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor reſides. The number of inhabitants are computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a ſudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies oppoſite the town, is ſafe and commodious, and about five fathom deep. The harbour is flanked by two baſtions, that are raiſed 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in ſailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places very bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way; ſeveral gentlemens houſes, neatly built, ſhew themſelves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flouriſhing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well ſettled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themſelves. Many beautiful iſlands are interſperſed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After paſſing the Richlieu iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported to another climate; but this is to be underſtood in the ſummer months.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the St. Lawrence. It is much reſorted to by ſeveral nations of Indians, who, by means of theſe rivers, reſort hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and ſkins. The country here is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides the rivers.

Montreal ſtands on an iſland in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the ſouth ſhore. While the French had poſſeſſion of Canada, both the city and iſland of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them ſo well, that the whole iſland was become a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well formed ſtreets; and when it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, the houſes were built in a very handſome manner, and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouthernmoſt ſide of the river, as the hill on the ſide of which the town ſtands, falls gradually to the water. This place is ſurrounded by a wall and a dry ditch, and its fortifications have been much improved by the Engliſh. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but ſince it fell into the hands of the Engliſh it hath ſuffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber,

timber, and to ſow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities are entitled to all their former rights and privileges. The Roman-catholic is ſtill to continue their eſtabliſhed religion; but the king of Great-Britain ſucceeds to all the power and prerogatives of which the French king was poſſeſſed. Canada is now divided into three governments, viz. Quebec, Montreal, and Trois Rivieres.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] By expelling the French from the back of our ſettlements, we ſecured them from the danger of being moleſted or attacked by an active and formidable enemy, and enabled our people to attend, with proper ſpirit and induſtry, to agriculture, and the improvement of that country. While the important conqueſt of Canada removed a rival power from that part of North America, it put us in the ſole poſſeſſion of the fur and peltry trade, the uſe and importance of which is well known to the manufacturers of Great-Britain, and enables us to extend the ſcale of a general commerce.

The nature of the climate, ſeverely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, ſhews what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarſe, linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a ſort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was poſſeſſed by the French, the Indians ſupplied them with peltry: and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and amongſt nations entirely unknown to us. Theſe again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpoſe, people from all parts, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and ſometimes laſted three months. On this occaſion, many ſolemnities were obſerved, guards were placed, and the governor aſſiſted, to preſerve order, in ſuch a concourſe, and ſo great a variety of ſavage nations. But ſometimes great diſorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being ſo fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all they were poſſeſſed of. It is remarkable, that many of theſe nations, actually paſſed by our ſettlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 200 miles further to Montreal, though they might have purchaſed the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of theſe ſavages!

Since we became poſſeſſed of Canada, our trade with that country employs 34 ſhips, and 400 ſeamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in ſkins, furs, ginſeng, ſnake-root, cappillaire and wheat, amount to 105,500 l. Their imports from Great-Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the ſame ſum. It is unneceſſary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only ſupplies us with unmanufactured materials, indiſpenſibly neceſſary in many articles of our commerce, but alſo takes in exchange, the manufactures of our own country, or the production of our other ſettlements in the East and Weſt Indies.

But with all our attention to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be impoſſible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural cauſes; I mean the ſeverity of the winter, which is ſo exceſſive from De-

cem-

cember to April, that the greateſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow lies commonly from four to ſix feet deep on the ground, even in thoſe parts of the country, which lie three degrees ſouth of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience ariſes from the falls in the river St. Lawrence, below Montreal, which prevents ſea veſſels from penetrating to that emporium of inland commerce. Our communication therefore with Canada, and the immenſe regions beyond it, will always be interrupted during the winter-ſeaſon, until roads are formed, that can be travelled with ſafety from the Indians. For it may here be obſerved, that theſe ſavage people often commence hoſtilities againſt us, without any previous notice; and frequently, without any provocation, they commit the moſt horrid ravages for a long time with impunity. But when at laſt their barbarities have rouſed the ſtrength of our people, they are not aſhamed to beg a peace; they know we always grant it readily; they promiſe it ſhall endure as long as the ſun and moon; and then all is quiet till ſome incident, too often co-operating with ill uſage received from our traders, gives them a freſh opportunity of renewing their cruelties.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

NEW SCOTLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 350	between	43 and 49 north latitude.
Breadth 250		60 and 67 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Lawrence on the north; by the gulph of St. Lawrence, and the Atlantic ocean, eaſt; by the ſame ocean, ſouth; and by Canada and New-England, weſt.

RIVERS.] The river of St. Lawrence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Riſgouche and Nipiſiguit run from weſt to eaſt, and fall into the bay of St. Lawrence. The rivers of St. John, Paſſamagnadi, Penobſcot, and St. Croix, which run from north to ſouth, fall into Fundy bay, or the ſea a little to the eaſtward of it.

SEAS, BAYS AND CAPES.] The ſeas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Fundy bay, and the gulph of St. Lawrence. The leſſer bays are, Chenigto and Green bay upon the Iſthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the ſouth; and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-eaſt; the bay of Chedibucto on the ſouth-eaſt; the bay of the iſlands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Proſper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Ryſignol, port Vert and port Joly, on the ſouth; port La Tour, on the ſouth eaſt; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas on the ſouth ſide of Fundy bay.

The chief capes are, cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, cape Fort and Epis, on the eaſt. Cape Fogeri, and cape Canceau, on the ſouth-eaſt. Cape Blanco, cape Vert, cape Theodore, cape Dore, cape La Heve, and cape Negro, on the ſouth. Cape Sable, and cape Fourche, on the ſouth-weſt.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the Temperate Zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European conſtitutions. They are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intenſely cold. But though the cold in winter, and the heat in ſummer are great, they come on gradually, ſo as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From ſuch an unfavourable climate little can be expected. New Scotland is almoſt a continued foreſt; and agriculture, though attempted by the Engliſh ſettlers, has hitherto made little progreſs. In moſt parts, the ſoil is thin and barren, the corn it produces of a ſhrivelled kind like rye, and the graſs intermixed with a cold ſpungy moſs. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninſula to the ſouthward, which do not yield to the beſt land in New England; and, in general, the ſoil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ſhip-building, and produces pitch and tar.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beaver, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupedes have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the cloſe of March, the fiſh begin to ſpawn, when they enter the rivers in ſuch ſhoals, as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the ſturgeon and ſalmon in May. But the moſt valuable appendage of New Scotland, is the cape Sable coaſt, along which is one continued range of cod-fiſhing banks, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS AND COMMERCE.] Notwithſtanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that ſome of the firſt European ſettlements were made. The firſt grant of lands in it were given by James I. to his ſecretary Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the Engliſh, till the peace of Utrecht; and their deſign in acquiring it, does not ſeem to have ſo much ariſen from any proſpect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehenſion that the French, by poſſeſſing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other ſettlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were tranſported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Hallifax, from the earl of that name, to whoſe wiſdom and care we owe this ſettlement. The town of Hallifax ſtands upon Chebucto bay, very commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with moſt parts of the province, either by land carriage, the ſea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war lies during the winter, and in ſummer puts to ſea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fiſhery, and to ſee that the articles of the late peace, relating thereto, are duly obſerved by the French. The town has an entrenchment, and is ſtrengthened with forts of timber. Three regiments of men are ſtationed in it, to protect the inhabitants from the Indians, whoſe reſentment, however excited or fomented, has been found implacable against the Engliſh. The number of inhabitants is ſaid to be 15 or 16,000, who live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs and naval ſtores, by their fiſheries, and its being the reſidence of the governor, and the garri-

garriſon already mentioned. The other towns of leſs note are Anapolis, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the bay of Fundy, and though but a ſmall wretched place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the fineſt harbours in America, capable of containing a thouſand veſſels at anchor, in the utmoſt ſecurity. This place is alſo protected by a fort and garriſon. St. John's is a new ſettlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy on the weſt ſide.

The exports from Great Britain to this country, conſiſt chiefly of woollen and linen cloth, and other neceſſaries for wear, of fiſhing tackle, and rigging for ſhips. The amount of our exports, at an average of three years, is about 26,500 l. The only articles we can get in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fiſhery, which, at a like average, amounts to 38,000 l. But, as we have already obſerved, the negative advantage of this colony, by which our enemies, while it remains in our hands, are prevented from doing harm to our other ſettlements, have principally engaged the Britiſh miniſtry to expend ſuch ſums, and to take ſuch pains in ſupporting it.

NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 550 Breadth 200	between	41 and 49 north latitude. 67 and 74 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the north-eaſt by New-Scotland; on the weſt, by Canada; on the ſouth by New York; and on the eaſt by the Atlantic.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The north diviſion, or government	New Hampſhire —	Portſmouth.
The middle diviſion	Maſſachuſet's Colony	BOSTON, N. Lat. 42-20. W. Lon. 70-40.
The ſouth diviſion	Rhode Iſland, &c.	Newport.
The weſt diviſion	Connecticut ——	New London. Hertford.

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, Connecticut; Thames; Patuxent; Merimac; Piſcataway; Saco; Caſco; Kinebeque; and, Penobſcot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The moſt remarkable bays and harbours are thoſe formed by Plymouth, Rhode-Iſland, and Providence plantations; Monument-Bay; Weſt-Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape-Cod; Boſton-Harbour; Piſcataway, and Caſco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape-Cod, Marble-Head, Cape-Anne, Cape-Tenetic, Cape-Porpus, Cape-Elizabeth, and Cape-Small-Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though ſituated almoſt ten degrees nearer the ſun than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more ſevere than with us. The ſummer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the ſame latitude. The clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the cli-

mate of this country ſo healthy, that it is reported to agree better with Britiſh conſtitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boiſterous in the winter ſeaſon, and naturaliſts aſcribe the early approach, the length and ſeverity of the winter, to the large freſh water lakes lying to the north-weſt of New England, which being froze over ſeveral months, occaſion thoſe piercing winds, which prove ſo fatal to mariners on this coaſt.

The ſun riſes at Boſton, on the longeſt day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and ſets at 34 minutes after ſeven in the evening; and on their ſhorteſt day, it riſes at 35 minutes after ſeven in the morning, and ſets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longeſt day is about fifteen hours, and the ſhorteſt about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already obſerved, that the lands lying on the eaſtern ſhore of America, are low, and in ſome parts ſwampy, but further back they riſe into hills. In New England, towards the north-eaſt, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The ſoil here is various, but beſt as you approach the ſouthward. Round Maſſachuſet's bay the ſoil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the firſt planters found the graſs above a yard high. The uplands are leſs fruitful, being for the moſt part a mixture of ſand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadow and paſture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much ſucceſs; the wheat is ſubject to be blaſted; the barley is an hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flouriſhes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower ſort of people. They likewiſe malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cyder and ſpruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the ſpruce fir, with the addition of a ſmall quantity of molaſſes. They likewiſe raiſe in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a ſingle apple tree has produced ſeven barrels of cyder in one ſeaſon.

But New England is chiefly diſtinguiſhed for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, aſh, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypreſs, beech, walnut, cheſnut, hazel, ſaſſafras, ſumach, and other woods uſed in dying or tanning leather, carpenters work, and ſhip building. The oaks here are ſaid to be inferior to thoſe of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and furniſh the royal navy of England with maſts and yards. They draw from their trees conſiderable quantities of pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the ſoil produces hemp and flax. A ſhip may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their foreſt, and indeed ſhip-building forms a conſiderable branch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich iron mines, of a moſt excellent kind and temper, have been diſcovered in New England, and, if improved, in a ſhort time they may ſupply Great Britain, without having recourſe to Sweden, and other European nations for that commodity; eſpecially as the parliament, to encourage the undertaking, allows both pig and bar iron to be imported duty free.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furniſh many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horſes of New England are hardy, mettleſome and ſerviceable, but ſmaller than ours, though larger than the Welſh. They have few ſheep; and the wool, though of a ſtaple ſufficiently long

is not near ſo fine as that of England. Here are alſo elks, deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, beavers, otters, monkies, minks, martens, racoons, ſabbs, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupedes, ſome of which are imported into Great Britain as foreign curioſities. But one of the moſt ſingular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moſe or mooſe deer, of which there are two ſorts; the common light grey mooſe, which reſembles the ordinary deer; theſe herd ſometimes thirty together; and the large black mooſe, whoſe body is about the ſize of a bull; his neck reſembles a ſtag's, and his fleſh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have ſhoots or branches to each horn, which generally ſpread about ſix feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and theſe prodigious horns are ſhed every year. This animal does not ſpring or riſe in going like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been ſeen to ſtep over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a courſe of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to a bay; but when chaſed, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geeſe, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, ſwans, heathcocks, herons, ſtorks, blackbirds, all ſorts of barn-door fowl, vaſt flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain ſeaſons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are, rattle-ſnakes, frogs, and toads, which ſwarm in the uncleared parts of theſe countries, where, with the owls, they make a moſt hideous noiſe in the ſummer evenings.

The ſeas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fiſh, and even whales of ſeveral kinds, ſuch as the whale-bone whale, the ſpermaceti-whale, which yields ambergris, the fin-backed whale, the ſcrag-whale, and the bunch-whale, of which they take great numbers, and ſend beſides ſome ſhips every year to fiſh for whales in Greenland. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long, with ſtrong teeth and jaws, perſecutes the whale in theſe ſeas; but, afraid of his monſtrous ſtrength, they ſeldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobſcot, there is a mackarel fiſhery; they likewiſe fiſh for cod in winter, which they dry in the froſt.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } There is not one of our ſettlements which can be compared, in the abundance of people, the number of conſiderable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New-England. The moſt populous and flouriſhing parts of the mother-country, hardly make a better appearance, than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach about 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of conſiderable landed eſtates, but the greateſt part of the people is compoſed of a ſubſtantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependance upon any but Providence, and their own induſtry. Theſe freeholds generally paſs to their children in the way of gavelkind: which keeps them from being almoſt ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary ſort ſo independant, or poſſeſs more of the conveniences of life; they are uſed from their infancy, to the exerciſe of arms; and they have a militia, which for a militia is by no means contemptible. The population of the four

provinces, of which New England is comprized, is proportioned by Douglaſs, who ſeems to be well informed in this point, as follows:

Maſſachuſet's bay	200,000
Connecticut	100,000
Rhode iſland	30,000
New Hampſhire	24,000

But the number ſince his time is ſo greatly increaſed, that according to the lateſt calculation, the four provinces contain 600,000 ſouls, including a ſmall number of Negroes and Indians.

RELIGION.] The church of England, in this part of America, is far from being in a flouriſhing condition; in ſeveral places, the number of auditors do not amount to twelve perſons. In the year 1768, the four provinces contained upwards of 700 religious aſſemblies; of which 36 only obſerved the forms of the church of England. Every particular ſociety among them, is independant of all other eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction; nor does there lie any appeal from their puniſhments or cenſures. The miniſters of Boſton depend entirely on the generoſity of their hearers for ſupport; a voluntary contribution being made for them, by the congregation, every time divine ſervice is celebrated. It is not long ſince they ſuffered any member of the church of England to have a ſhare in the magiſtracy, or to be elected a member of the Commons, or Houſe of Repreſentatives. Their laws againſt quakers ſeem to have been very ſevere. To bring one in was a forfeiture of 100 l. to conceal one 40 s. an hour; to go to a quaker's meeting 10 s. to preach there 5 s. If a quaker was not an inhabitant, he was ſubject to baniſhment, and if he returned, death; but theſe and ſome other eccleſiaſtical laws equally abſurd, are now either repealed, or greatly mitigated.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boſton, the capital of New-England, and of all the Britiſh empire in America, ſtands on a peninſula at the bottom of Maſſachuſet's bay, about nine miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this bay are ſeveral rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen ſmall iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited. There is but one ſafe channel to approach the harbour, and that ſo narrow, that two ſhips can ſcarcely ſail thro' abreaſt, but within the harbour there is room for 500 ſail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the iſlands of the bay, ſtands Fort William, the moſt regular fortreſs in the Britiſh plantations. This caſtle is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, ſo that it is ſcarce poſſible for an enemy to paſs the caſtle. To prevent ſurprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues diſtance, from whence they make ſignals to the caſtle, when any ſhips come near it. There is alſo a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000 feet in length; along which, on the north ſide, extends a row of warehouſes for the merchants, and to this pier ſhips of the greateſt burthen may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greateſt part of the town lies round the harbour, in the ſhape of a half moon; the country beyond it riſing gradually, and affording a delightful proſpect from the ſea. The head of the pier joins the principal ſtreet of the town, which is, like moſt of the others, ſpacious and well built. Boſton contains at preſent about 18,000 inhabitants; 50 years ago they were more numerous. The ſurpriſing increaſe of Newbury port, Salem, Marblehead, Cape Ann, Plymouth, Dartmouth, and the iſland of Nantucket, hath checked the growth of

trade of the capital. The trade of Boſton is, however, ſo very conſiderable, that in the year 1768, 1200 ſail entered and cleared at the Cuſtom-houſe there.

Cambridge, in the ſame province, four miles from Boſton, has an univerſity, containing two ſpacious colleges, called by the names of Harvard college, and Stoughton Hall, with a well furniſhed library. It conſiſts of a preſident, five fellows, a treaſurer, three profeſſors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was firſt granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony ſeal.

The other towns in New-England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiouſly ſituated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The trade of New-England is great, as it ſupplies a large quantity of goods from within itſelf; but it is yet greater, as the people of this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and the Weſt-Indies, and even for ſome parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields, are principally, pig and bar iron, which is imported to Great Britain duty-free; alſo maſts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contract largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl aſhes, ſtaves, lumber, boards; all ſorts of proviſions, which they ſend to the French and Dutch ſugar iſlands, and to Barbadoes, and the other Britiſh iſles, as grain, biſcuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, apples, cyder, onions, mackarel, and cod fiſh dried. They likewiſe ſend thither cattle, horſes, planks, hoops, ſhingles, pipe ſtaves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf ſkins, and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very conſiderable. They have a moſt valuable fiſhery upon their coaſts, in mackarel and cod, which employs vaſt numbers of their people, with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and Weſt-Indies, to a conſiderable amount. Their whale fiſhery has been already mentioned. The arts moſt neceſſary to ſubſiſtence are thoſe, which the inhabitants of New-England have been at pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarſe linen and woollen cloth for their own uſe; hats are made here, which, in a clandeſtine way, find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar baking, diſtilling, paper making, and ſalt works, are upon the improving hand. The buſineſs of ſhip-building is one of the moſt conſiderable, which Boſton, or the other ſea-port towns in New-England carry on. Ships are ſometimes built here upon commiſſion; but frequently, the merchants of New-England have them conſtructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval ſtores, fiſh, and fiſh-oil principally, they ſend them out upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where, having diſpoſed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until ſuch time as they can ſell the veſſel herſelf to advantage, which they ſeldom fail to do in a reaſonable time.

It was computed, that before the late unhappy differences aroſe, the amount of Engliſh manufactures, and India goods ſent into this colony from Great Britain, was not leſs at an average of three years, than 395,000 l. Our imports from the ſame were calculated at 370,500 l.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New-England is at preſent divided into the four provinces of New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſet's, Rhode-Iſland, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, king James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to ſend colonies into thoſe parts,

then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-eaſt coaſt of America was ſome time called. No ſettlements, however, were made in New-England, by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themſelves with ſending out a ſhip or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fiſh upon their coaſt. This continued to be the only ſort of correſpondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1621. By this time the religious diſſentions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Laud perſecuted all ſorts of non-conformiſts with an unrelenting ſeverity. Thoſe men, on the other hand, were ready to ſubmit to all the rigour of perſecution, rather than depart from their favourite tenets, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they conſidered as abuſes of the moſt dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, rather than be compelled to adopt the practices which prevailed in their native country, and as they imagined endangered the eternal ſalvation of all who adhered to them. America opened an extenſive field. There they might tranſport themſelves, and eſtabliſh whatever ſort of religious policy they were inclined to. The deſign, beſides, had ſomething in it noble, and admirably ſuited to the enterpriſing ſpirit of innovators in religion. With this view, having purchaſed the territory, which was within the juriſdiction of the Plymouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of ſettling it in whatever way they had a mind, 150 perſons embarked for New-England, and built a city, which, becauſe they had ſailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the climate, the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, and the diſeaſes to which, after a long ſea voyage, and in a country, which was new to them, they were expoſed; notwithſtanding the want of all ſort of conveniences, and even of many of the neceſſaries of life, thoſe who had conſtitutions fit to endure ſuch hardſhips, not diſpirited or broken by the death of their companions, and ſupported by the vigour then peculiar to Engliſhmen, and the ſatisfaction of finding themſelves beyond the reach of the ſpiritual arm, ſet themſelves to cultivate this ungrateful country, and to take the beſt ſteps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themſelves for the ſame reaſons, uneaſy at home, paſſed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the cloſe of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles-Town, and Boſton, which has ſince become the capital of New-England. But as neceſſity is the natural ſource of that active and frugal induſtry, which produces every thing great among mankind, ſo an uninterrupted flow of proſperity and ſucceſs, occaſions thoſe diſſentions, which are the bane of human affairs, and often ſubvert the beſt founded eſtabliſhments.

The inhabitants of New-England, who had fled from perſecution, became in a ſhort time ſtrongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion, among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in this age ſuperior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking, which at preſent diſtinguiſhes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of univerſal toleration, which, to the honour of the firſt ſettlers in America, began to appear among them, had now few abetters, and many opponents. In all perſuaſions the bigots are perſecutors; the men of a cool and reaſonable piety are favourers of toleration; becauſe the former ſort of men, not taking the pains to be acquainted with the grounds of their adver-

ſaries

ſaries tenets, conceive them to be ſo abſurd and monſtrous, that no man of ſenſe can give into them in good earneſt. For which reaſon they are convinced, that ſome oblique bad motive induces them to pretend to the belief of ſuch doctrines, and to the maintaining of them with obſtinacy. This is a very general principle in all religious differences, and it is the corner ſtone of all perſecution. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the ſame ſociety, without maintaining the ſame religious opinions, and wherever theſe were at variance, the members of different ſects kept at a diſtance from each other, and eſtabliſhed ſeparate governments. Hence ſeveral ſlips, torn from the original government of New-England, by religious violence, planted themſelves in a new ſoil, and ſpread over the country. Such was that of New-Hampſhire, which continues to this day a ſeparate juriſdiction; ſuch too was that of Rhode Iſland, whoſe inhabitants were driven out from the Maſſachuſet colony (for that is the name by which the government firſt erected in New-England was diſtinguiſhed) for ſupporting the freedom of religious ſentiment, and maintaining that the civil magiſtrate had no right over the ſpeculative opinions of mankind. Theſe liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and ſuch is the connection between juſtneſs of ſentiment, and external proſperity, that the government of Rhode Iſland, though ſmall, is extremely populous and flouriſhing. Another colony driven out by the ſame perſecuting ſpirit, ſettled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of ſuch as were diſſatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main reſource of all diſcontented and enterprizing ſpirits, and ſuch were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637 a proclamation was publiſhed, prohibiting any perſon from ſailing thither, without an expreſs licenſe from the government. For want of this licenſe, it is ſaid, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of that party, were detained from going into New-England, after being a-ſhipboard for that purpoſe.

Theſe four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at firſt, and ſtill continue under ſeparate juriſdictions. They were all of them by their charters originally free, and in a great meaſure independant of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magiſtrates, the governor, the council, the aſſembly, and the power of making ſuch laws, as they thought proper, without ſending them to Great Britain, for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be oppoſite to thoſe of Great Britain. Toward the latter end of the reign of Charles II. the Maſſachuſet's colony was accuſed of violating their charter, and by a judgment in the King's-Bench of England, was deprived of it. From that time to the Revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extenſive privilege of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, is veſted in the crown; the power of the militia is wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, to whom the execution of the law is entruſted, are nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor has a negative on the choice of counſellors, peremptory, and unlimited; and he is not obliged to give a reaſon for what he does in this particular, or reſtrained to any number; authentic copies

of the ſeveral acts paſſed by this colony, as well as others, are to be tranſmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony are not repealed within three years after they are preſented, they are not repealable by the crown after that time; that no laws, ordinances, election of magiſtrates, or acts of government whatſoever, are valid, without the governor's conſent in writing; and appeals for ſums above 300 l. are admitted to the king and council. Notwithſtanding theſe reſtraints, the people have ſtill a great ſhare of power in this colony; for they not only chooſe the aſſembly, but this aſſembly, with the governor's concurrence, chooſe the council, reſembling our houſe of lords, and the governor depends upon the aſſembly for his annual ſupport; which has ſometimes tempted the governor of this province to give up the prerogative of the crown, and the intereſts of Great Britain.

To the Maſſachuſet's government is united the antient colony of Plymouth, and the territory called Main.

By the laws of this province no perſon can be arreſted, if there are any means of ſatisfaction; nor impriſoned, unleſs there be a concealment of effects. Adultery is death to both parties.

New-Hampſhire is ſtill more under the influence of Great Britain. The council itſelf is appointed by the crown, and in other reſpects it agrees with the former.

The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Iſland, have preſerved their antient charters, and enjoy the ſame privileges which the Maſſachuſets did formerly.

There were originally three ſorts of governments eſtabliſhed by the Engliſh on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter governments, and proprietary governments.

A royal government is properly ſo called, becauſe the colony is immediately dependent on the crown; and the king remains ſovereign of the colony; he appoints the governor, council, and officers of ſtate, and the people only elect the repreſentatives, as in England; ſuch are the governments of Quebec, Nova Scotia, Virginia, New-Hampſhire, New-York, New-Jerſey, and both Carolinas, Georgia, Eaſt and Weſt-Florida, the Weſt-India iſlands, and that of St. John's.

A charter government is ſo called, becauſe the company, incorporated by the king's charter, were in a manner veſted with ſovereign authority to eſtabliſh what ſort of government they thought fit; and theſe charter governments have generally transferred their authority to the people; for in ſuch governments, or rather corporations, the freemen do not only chooſe their repreſentatives, but annually chooſe their governor, council, and magiſtrates, and make laws, without the concurrence, and even without the knowledge of the king; and are under no other reſtraint than this that they enact no laws contrary to the laws of England; if they do, their charters are liable to be forfeited. Such, as we have already obſerved, are the governments of Rhode Iſland and Connecticut, in New-England, and ſuch was that of the Maſſachuſet's formerly, but it appears now to be a mixture of both. Such likewiſe was the two Carolinas.

The third kind of government is the proprietary, properly ſo called, becauſe the proprietor is inveſted with ſovereign authority: he appoints the governor, council and magiſtrates, and the repreſentatives are ſummoned in his name, and by their advice he enacts laws, without the concurrence of the crown; but, by a late ſtatute, the proprietor muſt have the king's conſent in the appointing a governor, when he does not reſi-

reſide in the plantation in perſon, and of a deputy governor when he does And all the governors of the plantations are liable to be called to an account for their adminiſtration, by the court of King's Bench. The only proprietary governments now remaining, are thoſe of Penſylvania and Maryland.

NEW YORK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300 / Breadth 150	between	40 and 46 north latitude. / 72 and 76 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] NEW YORK is bounded on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, by Hudſon's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jerſey and Penſylvania; on the eaſt and north-eaſt, by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the north-weſt, by Canada.

This province, including the Iſland of New York, Long-Iſland, and Statin-Iſland, is divided into the ten following counties:

Counties.	Chief towns.
New York	NEW YORK 40-40 N. lat. 74-00 W. lon.
Albany	Albany
Ulſter	None
Ducheſs	
Orange	Orange
Weſt-Cheſter	Weſt-Cheſter
King's	None
Queen's	Jamaica
Suffolk	Southampton
Richmond	Richmond.

RIVERS.] The principal of theſe are Hudſon's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well ſtored with great variety of fiſh; on this the cities of New York and Albany are ſituated. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is ſaid to fall 70 feet perpendicular, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAPES.] Theſe are Cape May, on the eaſt entrance of Delaware river; Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of Rarjtan river; and Montock Point, at the eaſt end of Long-Iſland.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the ſouth of New-England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all conſtitutions. The face of the country, reſembling that of our other colonies in America, is low, flat, and marſhy towards the ſea. As you recede from the coaſt, the eye is entertained with the gradual ſwelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The ſoil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the ſame with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. The tract claimed by the two nations, extended from the 38th to the 41st degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conquest in 1664, and it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our possession, before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James, duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's accession to the throne, the right to New York became vested in the crown, since which time it has been a royal government. The king appoints the governor and council; and the people, once in seven years, elect their representatives to serve in general assembly. These three branches of the legislature (answering to those of Great Britain) have power to make any laws not repugnant to those of England; but, in order to their being valid, the royal assent to them must first be obtained.

CITIES, POPULATION, COMMERCE, RELIGION AND LEARNING. } The city of New York stands on the south-west end of New York-Island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns towards Canada and the lakes. This city is in length above a mile, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery: in the fort is a spacious mansion-house for the use of the governor. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. The greatest part of the inhabitants, who are computed at 12 or 15,000, are descended from the Dutch families who remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English, and the whole province is supposed to contain between 80 and 100,000. The better sort are rich and hospitable, the lower ranks are easy in their circumstances; and both are endowed with a generous and liberal turn of mind, which renders their society and conversation more agreeable than in most countries either of Europe or America.

The commerce of this province does not materially differ from that of New England. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New Englanders use; and they have a share in the logwood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They take almost the same sort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports are said to amount to 526,000 l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000 l.

All religious denominations, except Jews and Papists, enjoy equal privileges here, as there is no established church, unless the eighth article of the capitulation, made on the surrender of the place ("The Dutch "shall enjoy the liberty of their consciences in divine worship and church discipline") may be termed an establishment. Judaism is tolerated, but popery is not. The inhabitants of the province consist chiefly of Dutch, English, and Scots presbyterians, German calvinists, Lutherans, quakers, baptists, &c. who have their respective houses of worship. The Dutch presbyterian

preſbyterians being in ſubordination to the Claſſis of Amſterdam, ſend all their youth, who are intended for the miniſtry, to Holland for ordination, as the epiſcopalians do theirs to England. The Engliſh preſbyterians are on the model of the church of Scoland *.

A college was erected in New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but as the aſſembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reaſon never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public ſeminary in ſo populous a city. It contains at preſent about twenty ſtudents.

NEW JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 160	between	39 and 43 north latitude.
Breadth 60		74 and 76 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] NEW JERSEY is bounded on the weſt and ſouth-weſt, by Delaware river and Bay; on the ſouth-eaſt and eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound, which ſeparates Staten Iſland from the continent, and Hudſon's river, on the north.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.	
Eaſt diviſion contains	Middleſex	Perth-Amboy and New-Brunſwick	
	Monmouth	None	
	Eſſex	Elizabeth and Newark	
	Somerſet	None	
	Bergen	Bergen.	
Weſt diviſion contains	Burlington	BURLINGTON	40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. lon.
	Glouceſter	Glouceſter	
	Salem	Salem	
	Cumberland	Hopewell	
	Cape May	None	
	Hunterdon	Trenton	
	Morris	Morris	
	Suſſex	None.	

RIVERS.] Theſe are Delaware, Raritan, and Paſſaick, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is ſaid to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 50 yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the ſame with that of New York; the ſoil is various, at leaſt one fourth part of the province is barren ſandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

* In the year 1770, the number of places for public worſhip in the city of New York ſtood as follows;

Dutch preſbyterians	—	3	Baptiſts	—	1
Engliſh ditto —	—	2	Moravians —	—	1
Scotch ditto —	—	1	German Calviniſts —	—	2
Epiſcopalians —	—	3	——— Lutherans —	—	1
French refugees —	—	1	Methodiſts ---	---	1
Quakers —	—	1	Jews --- ---	---	1

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, COMMERCE, RELIGION, AND LEARNING.] New Jerſey is part of that vaſt tract of land, which we have obſerved was given by king Charles II. to his brother, James duke of York: he ſold it, for a valuable conſideration, to lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret, (from whom it received its preſent name, becauſe Sir George had, as the family ſtill have, eſtates in the iſland of Jerſey) and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a ſurrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which ſhe accepted; ſince that time it has been a royal government. By an account publiſhed in 1765, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 100,000. Perth-Amboy and Burlington are the ſeats of government; the governor generally reſides in the latter, which is pleaſantly ſituate on the river Delaware, within 20 miles of Philadelphia. The former is as good a port as moſt on the continent; and the harbour is ſafe, and capacious enough to contain many large ſhips. This province has no foreign trade worth mentioning, owing to its vicinity to the large trading cities of New York and Philadelphia, by which it is ſupplied with merchandizes of all kinds, and makes returns to them in lumber, wheat, flour, &c. In Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The ſtate of religion here may be ſeen by the following liſt of the houſes for public worſhip throughout the province, which was made in 1765 by a member of the council for the province *.

Learning has of late been greatly encouraged in this province. A college was eſtabliſhed at the town of Princeton, by governor Belcher in 1746, and has a power of conferring the ſame degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are generally between 80 and 100 ſtudents here, who come from all parts of the continent, ſome even from the extremities of it.

PENSYLVANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300	between	74 and 81 W. longitude.
Breadth 240		39 and 44 N. latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or five nations, on the north; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerſeys, on the eaſt; and by Maryland, on the ſouth and weſt, and contains the following counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.	
Philadelphia	PHILADELPHIA,	N. lat. 40. W. lon. 75-20.
Cheſter	Cheſter	
Bucks	Newtown	
Berks	Reading	

* Engliſh and Scotch preſbyterians	57	Moravians	
Quakers	39	Separatiſts	
Dutch preſbyterians	22	Rogereens	
Epiſcopalians	22		
Baptiſts	22		In all
Lutherans	7		

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Northampton	Eaſton
Lancaſter	Lancaſter
York	York
Cumberland	Carliſle

Beſides the above, there are the three following

Counties,		Chief Towns.
Newcaſtle, Kent and Suſſex	on Delaware	Newcaſtle, Dover, Lewes,

which form in ſome meaſure a diſtinct government, having an aſſembly of their own, though the ſame governor with the province of Penſylvania.

RIVERS.] The rivers are Delaware, which is navigable for veſſels of one ſort or other, more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. Suſquehanna, and Schuylkill, are alſo navigable a conſiderable way up the country. Theſe rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks, in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, render this province admirably ſuited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The face of the country, air, ſoil, and produce, do not materially differ from that of New-York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is ſweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are ſo extremely cold and ſevere, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are almoſt intolerably hot, but the country is refreſhed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of our plantations from New-York to the ſouthern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four ſpecies, all different from thoſe we have in Europe. But, whether from ſome fault in their nature, or in their climate, or the ſoil where they grow, or what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deſerves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a ſort of wine, with which they regale themſelves. It may alſo be obſerved of the timber of theſe colonies, that towards the ſouth it is not ſo good for ſhipping, as that of the more northern provinces. The further ſouthward you go, the timber becomes leſs compact, and rives eaſily; which property, as it renders it leſs ſerviceable for ſhips, makes it more uſeful for ſtaves.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally poſſeſſed by the Dutch and Swedes. When theſe nations, however, were expelled from New-York, by the Engliſh, admiral Pen, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the iſland of Jamaica, being well with Charles II. obtained a promiſe of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his ſon, the celebrated quaker, availed himſelf of this promiſe, and after much court ſollicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Pen be little known, but to thoſe of his own perſuaſion, his reputation in a character no leſs reſpectable, is univerſal among all civilized nations. The circumſtances of the times engaged vaſt numbers to follow him into his new ſettlement, to avoid the perſecutions, to which the quakers, like other ſectaries, were then expoſed, but it was to his own wiſdom and ability, that they

are

are indebted for that charter of privileges, which has put this colony o
ſo reſpectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty in the utmoſt lati
tude, was laid down by that great man, as the great and only foundatio
of all his inſtitutions. Chriſtians of all denominations might not onl
live unmoleſted, but have a ſhare in the government of the colony *. N
laws can be made but by the conſent of the inhabitants. Even matters o
benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were b
Pen ſubjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to b
inquired into by a court conſtituted for that purpoſe. The cauſes betwee
man and man were not to be ſubjected to the delay and chicanery of the law
but decided by wiſe and honeſt arbitrators. His benevolence and generoſit
extended alſo to the Indian nations: inſtead of immediately taking advanta
of his patent, he purchaſed of theſe people the lands he had obtained by hi
grant, judging that the original property, and eldeſt right, was veſted in them
William Pen, in ſhort, had he been a native of Greece, would have ha
his ſtatue placed next to that of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founde
on the ſolid baſis of equity, ſtill maintain their force; and as a proof o
their effects, it is only neceſſary to mention that land is now granted a
twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four ſhillings reſerved
whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted were at twenty pound
the thouſand acres, with one ſhilling quit-rent for every hundred. Ne
Philadelphia, land rents at twenty ſhillings the acre, and even at ſeven
miles diſtance from that city, ſells at twenty years purchaſe.

In ſome years, more people have tranſported themſelves into Penſyl
vania, than into all the other ſettlements together. In ſhort, this pro
vince has increaſed ſo greatly from the time of its firſt eſtabliſhment, th
the number of inhabitants in the whole province, is computed at 350,000
Upon the principal rivers ſettlements are made, and the country cultivate
150 miles above Philadelphia. The people are hardy, induſtrious, an
moſt of them ſubſtantial, though but few of the landed people can b
conſidered as rich; but they are all well lodged, well fed, and, for the
condition, well clad; and this at the more eaſy rate, as the inferior peopl
manufacture moſt of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very conſiderable towns, ſuch as Germa
town, Cheſter, Oxford, Radnor, all which, in any other colony, woul
deſerve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city o
Philadelphia, containing upwards of 30,000 inhabitants, beautiful be
yond any city of America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe
totally eclipſes the reſt, and deſerves all our attention. It was built aft
the plan of the famous Pen, the founder and legiſlator of this colony.
is ſituated 100 miles from the ſea, between two navigable rivers, the De
laware, where it is above a mile in breadth on the north, and the Schuy
kill, on the ſouth, which it unites as it were, by running in a line
two miles between them. The whole town, when the original plan c
be fully executed, is in this manner; every quarter of the city forms
ſquare of eight acres, and almoſt in the center of it, is a ſquare of t
acres, ſurrounded by the town-houſe, and other public buildings. T
High-Street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town
parallel to it run nineteen other ſtreets, which are croſſed by eight mo
at right angles, all of them 30 feet wide, and communicating with cana
from the two rivers, which add not only to the beauty, but to the whol
ſomeneſs of the city. According to the original plan, every man in po
ſeſſion of 1000 acres in the province, had his houſe either in one of th
from

* At preſent the church of England is but barely tolerated here.

fronts, facing the rivers, or in the High-Street, running from the middle of one front, to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, beſides the above-mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of his houſe, and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court yards. The proprietor's ſeat, which is the uſual place of the governor's reſidence, and is about a mile above the town, is the firſt private building both for magnificence and ſituation in all Britiſh America. The barracks for the king's troops, the market and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are ſpacious and fine, the principal quay is 200 feet wide, and to this a veſſel of 500 tuns may lay her broadſide.

There are in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way ſurprizing, when we conſider the great trade which it carries on with the Engliſh, Spaniſh, French and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira iſlands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal and Holland. Beſides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, proviſions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is ſo commodiouſly ſituated, the Germans, who are ſettled in the interior parts of this province, employ ſeveral hundred waggons, drawn each by four horſes, in bringing the products of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, 303 veſſels entered inwards at this port, and 291 cleared outwards.

The commodities exported from Great Britain into Penſylvania, at an average of three years, amount to the value of 611,000 l. Thoſe exported to Great Britain and other markets, beſides timber, ſhips built for ſale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, conſiſt of grain, flour, and many ſorts of animal food; and at an average of three years, are calculated at 705,500 l.

There is a flouriſhing academy eſtabliſhed at Philadelphia, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England and Scotland, and which bids fair to become a bright ſeminary of learning.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 140	between	75 and 80 W. longitude.
Breadth 135		37 and 40 N. latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Penſylvania, on the north; by another part of Penſylvania, and the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt; by Virginia, on the ſouth; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the weſt.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Cheſapeak; viz. 1. The eaſtern; and 2. The weſtern diviſion.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
The eaſt diviſion contains the counties of	Worceſter	Princeſs Anne
	Somerſet	Snow Hill
	Dorſet	Dorſet, or Dorcheſter
	Talbot	Oxford
	Cecil	
	Queen Anne's	Queen's Town
	Kent	Cheſter.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
The weſt diviſion contains	St. Mary's county	St. Mary's
	Charles county —	Briſtol
	Prince George county	Maſterkout
	Calvert county —	Abington
	Arundel county —	ANNAPOLIS, W. lon. 76-50. N. lat. 39.
	Baltimore county	Baltimore.
	Frederic county —	

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vaſt number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn and Saſſafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In theſe particulars this province has nothing particular by which it may be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe already deſcribed. The hills in the inland country are of ſo eaſy aſcent, that they rather ſeem an artificial than a natural production. The vaſt number of rivers diffuſes fertility through the ſoil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco, (which is the ſtaple commodity of that country) hemp, Indian corn and grain, which they now begin to cultivate in preference to tobacco.

COMMERCE.] The commerce of Maryland depends on the ſame principles with that of Virginia, and is ſo cloſely connected with it, that any ſeparation of them would rather confuſe than edify. It will be conſidered therefore under that head.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] It ſeems as if all the provinces of North America were planted from motives of religion. Maryland, like thoſe we have formerly deſcribed, owes its ſettlement to religious conſiderations. As they however were peopled by proteſtants, and even ſectaries, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This ſect towards the cloſe of Charles I.'s reign, was the object of great hatred with the bulk of the Engliſh nation; the laws in force againſt the Roman catholics, were executed with the utmoſt ſeverity. This in part aroſe from an opinion, perhaps not without ſome foundation, that the court was too favourably diſpoſed towards this form of religion. It is certain that many marks of favour were conferred on Roman-catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the moſt eminent, one in greateſt favour with the court, and on that account moſt odious to the generality of Engliſhmen. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country which formerly was conſidered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. and ſpouſe to king Charles. The year following about 200 popiſh families, ſome of them of conſiderable diſtinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into poſſeſſion of this new territory. Theſe ſettlers, who had that liberality and good breeding, which diſtinguiſhes gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an eaſy price from the native Indians; they even lived with them for ſome time in the ſame city; and the ſame harmony continued to ſubſiſt between the two nations, until the Indians were impoſed on by the malicious inſinuations of ſome planters in Virginia, who envied the proſperity of this popiſh colony, and inflamed the Indians againſt them by ill-grounded reports, but ſuch as were ſufficient to ſtir up the reſentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reaſon to be ſo. The colony, however, was not want-

to its own ſafety on this occaſion. Though they continued their friendly intercourſe with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to uſe every other precaution for their defence againſt ſudden hoſtilities: the defeat of this attempt gave a new ſpring to the activity of this plantation: which was likewiſe receiving frequent reinforcements from England of thoſe who found themſelves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorſhip of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was ungenerouſly deprived of his rights, and a new governor, appointed by the protector, ſubſtituted in his room. At the reſtoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural poſſeſſor. Baltimore was reinſtated in his rights, and fully diſcovered how well he deſerved to be ſo. He eſtabliſhed a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony encreaſed and flouriſhed, and diſſenters of all denominations, allured by the proſpect of gain, flocked into Maryland. The tyrannical government of James II. which without diſcernment of friends or enemies, but with the fury of a mad-dog, ſnapped at every thing before it, again deprived this noble family of their poſſeſſion, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence. At the revolution, however, lord Baltimore was again reſtored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not conſiſtently be conferred on a Roman catholic. But ſince the family have changed their religion, they have obtained the power as well as the intereſt. At preſent but a ſmall part of it belongs to that family. The government of this country exactly reſembles that in Virginia, except that the governor is appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown. The cuſtoms too are reſerved to the crown, and the officers belonging to them are independent of the government of the province. So far is Maryland from being at preſent a popiſh government, that the proteſtants, by far more numerous, have excluded them from all offices of truſt and power. They have even adopted the penal laws of England againſt them. The church of England is by law eſtabliſhed here, and the clergy are paid in tobacco: a tax for this purpoſe is levied annually, and every male white perſon above the age of 16 is obliged to pay 40 lb. of tobacco (or if he raiſes no tobacco, he muſt take an oath that he does not, and pay the value in caſh;) diſſenting clergy are not exempted.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 750	between	75 and 90 weſt long.
Breadth 240		36 and 40 north lat.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river Patowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the north-eaſt; by the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt; by Carolina, on the ſouth; and by the river Miſſiſippi, on the weſt.

The cultivated part of this extenſive province is divided into 24 counties, which are for the moſt part named after thoſe of England. But here are no towns except Williamſburgh and James's Town, which ſhall be deſcribed in their places.

CAPES, BAYS AND RIVERS.] In ſailing to Virginia or Maryland, you paſs a ſtreight between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a paſſage into the bay of Cheſapeak, one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the ſouth to the north, is about 18 miles broad for a conſiderable way, and ſeven where it is narroweſt, the waters in moſt places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vaſt number of navigable rivers from the ſides both of Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, beſides others of leſs note, it receives James River, York river, the Rappahanock, and the Potowmac; theſe are not only navigable for large ſhips into the heart of the country, but have ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is without all manner of doubt the country of the world of the moſt convenient navigation. It has been obſerved, and the obſervation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door. The back country behind the Allegany mountains is every where watered by the Ohio, and the numerous branches of that noble ſtream.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is ſo extremely low towards the ſea, that you are very near the ſhore, before you can diſcover land from the maſt-head. The lofty trees, which cover the ſoil, gradually riſe as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting proſpect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extenſive coaſt of North America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In ſummer the heats here are exceſſive, tho' not without refreſhing breezes from the ſea. The weather is changeable, and the changes ſudden and violent. Their winter froſts come on without the leaſt warning. To a warm day, there ſometimes ſucceeds ſuch an intenſe cold in the evening as to freeze over the largeſt rivers.

The air and ſeaſons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryneſs and moiſture. In winter they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleaſant. Their ſpring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June, the heat encreaſes; and the ſummer is much like ours, being refreſhed with gentle breezes from the ſea, that riſe about nine o'clock, and decreaſe and increaſe as the ſun riſes or falls. In July and Auguſt theſe breezes ceaſe, and the air becomes ſtagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occaſion all the train of diſeaſes incident to a moiſt climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any miſchief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the ſea-ſhore, and the banks of the rivers, the ſoil of Virginia conſiſts of a dark rich mould, which for many years, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a diſtance from the water there is a lightneſs and ſandineſs in the ſoil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and helped by a kindly ſun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been ſaid of the ſoil and climate, it is eaſy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The foreſts are covered with all ſorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or bruſhes grow beneath; ſo that people travel with eaſe through the foreſts on horſeback, under a fine ſhade, to defend them from the ſun.

the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering ſhrubs of the richeſt colours, and moſt fragrant ſcent. Silk grows ſpontaneous in many places, the fibres of which are as ſtrong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the ſnake root, and the ginſeng of the Chineſe, are here in great plenty. There is no ſort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants however are ſo engroſſed with the culture of the tobacco plant, that they think, if corn ſufficient for their ſupport can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced not only for their own conſumption, but for export, though not in ſuch quantities as they might be expected from the nature of the ſoil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

ANIMALS.] We ſhall here obſerve, that there were neither horſes, cows, ſheep, nor hogs in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied ſo extremely that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the ſouthern colonies, run wild. Beef and pork is ſold here from one penny to twopence a pound: their fatteſt pullets at ſixpence a-piece; chickens, at three or four ſhillings a dozen; geeſe, at ten pence; and turkeys, at eighteen pence a-piece. But fiſh, and wild fowl, are ſtill cheaper in the ſeaſon, and deer are ſold from five to ten ſhillings a-piece. This eſtimate may ſerve for the other American colonies, where proviſions are equally plentiful and cheap, and in ſome ſtill lower. Beſides the animals tranſported from Europe, thoſe natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a ſort of panther or tyger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewiſe that ſingular animal called the Opoſſum, which ſeems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix, in his hiſtory of Canada. It is about the ſize of a cat, and beſides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itſelf, which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which diſcovers a large number of teats on the uſual part of the common belly. Upon theſe, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the ſtalk, until they grow in bulk and weight to their appointed ſize; then they drop off, and are received into the falſe belly, from which they go out at pleaſure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all ſorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, called from the country, whoſe plumage is crimſon and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and by far the moſt beautiful, all arrayed in ſcarlet, green and gold. It ſips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nouriſhment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. This is the firſt country which the Engliſh planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other ſettlements, as has been already obſerved, from the diſcovery of Sebaſtian Cabot, who, in 1497, firſt made the northern continent of America, in the ſervice of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to ſettle it, till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that Sir Walter Raleigh, the moſt extraordinary genius of the age in which he lived, perhaps in any age, applied to court, and got together a company which was compoſed of ſeveral perſons of diſtinction and ſeveral eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade and ſettle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he

called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony before any proved successful. The three first companies who sailed into Virginia perished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced almost to the same situation: and, being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But in the mouth of Chesapeak bay, they were met by lord Delawar, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, his prudence, and winning behaviour, the government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia, from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return into England. He left behind him, however, his son, as deputy; with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them James-Town, the first town built by the English in the new world, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the Cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and under the government of Sir William Berkley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the Restoration, there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availed himself of some discontents in the colony, on account of restraints on trade, became very popular, and set every thing in confusion. His natural death, however, restored peace and unanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia ceased to destroy themselves.

The government of this province was not at first adapted to the principles of the English constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a subject of Great-Britain thinks himself entitled in every part of the globe. It was governed by a governor and council, appointed by the king of Great-Britain. As the inhabitants encreased, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county into which this country is divided, with privileges resembling those of the representatives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower house of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing: its members are appointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they are still Honourable, and answer in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house is the guardian of the peoples liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bears a striking resemblance to our own. When any bill has passed the two houses, it comes before the governor, who gives his assent or negative as he thinks proper. It now acquires the force of a law, until it be transmitted to England, and his majesty's pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of assembly acts not only as a part of the legislature, but also as a privy council

council to the governor, without whose concurrence he can do nothing of moment; it sometimes acts as a court of Chancery.

The number of white people in Virginia, which is daily encreasing, is supposed to amount to about 100,000. The negroes, of whom some thousands are annually imported into Virginia and Maryland, are at least as many; they thrive too here much better than in the West-Indies. The inhabitants of Virginia are of a chearful, hospitable, and in general a genteel sort of people: some of them are accused of vanity and ostentation; which accusation is not without some ground. Here are only two towns that deserve that name; the largest of which, and the capital of the province, is Williamsburg, containing about 60 houses, a college, and some spacious public buildings. It is seated in 37-12 N. lat. and 76-48. W. lon. about 40 miles from the mouth of James's River, and seven from James Town, which was formerly the capital, and at present contains about 80 or 100 houses, chiefly taverns and public houses for the entertainment of mariners.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is also included that of Maryland. These provinces are supposed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000 l. into Great Britain. This, at eight pounds per hogshead, makes the number of hogsheads amount to 96,000. Of these, it is computed, that about 13,500 hogsheads are consumed at home, the duty on which, at 26 l. 1 s. per hogshead, comes to 351,675 l. the remaining 82,500 hogsheads are exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this single branch employs 330 sail of ships, and 3960 seamen. Not only our wealth therefore, but the very sinews of our strength are powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of these colonies, of which naval stores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the most considerable, make the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000 l. The exports of Great-Britain, the same as to our other colonies, at a like average, come to 865,000 l.

Though an intire toleration be allowed to all religions in this country, there are few dissenters from the church of England. The bishop of London sends over a superintendant to inspect the character of the clergy, who live comfortably here, (a priest to each parish) with about 100 l. per annum, paid in tobacco.

Here is also a college, founded by king William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000 l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of 2000 l. a year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or visitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children.

NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA, with GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	700	between	76 and 91 west longitude.
Breadth	380		30 and 37 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia, on the north; by the Atlantic ocean, on the east; by the river St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the south; and by the Miſſiſippi, on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Towns.
North Carolina contains the counties of	Albemarle —— Bath county, and Clarendon in part	Divided into pariſhes, but have no towns.
The middle diviſion, or South Carolina, contains the counties of	Clarendon in part	St. James Chriſt-Church
	Craven county — Berkley county — Colleton county —	CHARLES-TOWN, W. lon. 79-12. N. lat. 32-45.
	Granville county —	Port-Royal.
The ſouth-diviſion contains only	Georgia	SAVANNAH, N. lat. 31-55, W. lon. 80-20. Frederica Puriſburgh.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamtico, Neus, Cape Fera, or Clarendon river; Pedee, Santee, Savannah, Alatamaha, or George river, and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida: all which rivers riſe in the Apalachian mountains, and running eaſt, fall into the Atlantic Ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yaſous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble ſtreams which fall into the Miſſiſippi or the gulph of Mexico.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The only ſea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic ocean; which is ſo ſhallow near the coaſt, that a ſhip of any great burden cannot approach it, except in ſome few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the beſt are thoſe of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle river, and Pamtico. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George-Town, Charles-Town, and Port-Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Altamaha form good harbours.

The moſt remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 deg. odd minutes north lat. Cape Fear to the ſouth of it, and Cape Cartaret ſtill further ſouth.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any conſiderable difference between the climate of theſe countries. In general it agrees with that of Virginia; but, where they differ it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The ſummers indeed are of a more intenſe heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and ſhorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is ſubject to ſudden tranſitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to ſuch violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are ſeldom ſevere enough to freeze any conſiderable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the froſts have never ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the noon-day ſun; ſo that many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-Town, and excellent in their kinds, both ſweet and ſour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] In this reſpect too there is a conſiderable coincidence between theſe countries

countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia is not of near ſo good a ſoil as the other provinces. The whole country is in a manner one foreſt, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almoſt the ſame in every reſpect with thoſe produced in Virginia; and by the different ſpecies of theſe, the quality of the ſoil is eaſily known. The land in Carolina is eaſily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the foreſts moſtly conſiſt of tall trees at a conſiderable diſtance. Thoſe grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark ſand intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhauſted; for here they never uſe any manure. The pine barren is the worſt of all; this is an almoſt perfectly white ſand, yet it bears the pine tree, and ſome other uſeful plants naturally, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this ſpecies of land is cleared, for two or three years together, it produces very good crops of Indian corn and peaſe; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even anſwers for rice. But what is moſt fortunate for this province is, that this worſt part of its land is favourable to a ſpecies of the moſt valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of Indigo. The low, rich, ſwampy grounds, bear their great ſtaple, rice. The country near the ſea is much the worſt, in many parts little better than an unhealthy ſalt marſh; for Carolina is all an even plain for 80 miles from the ſea, not a hill, not a rock, nor ſcarce even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles diſtance from Charles-Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpoſe of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleaſant to the eye than the variegated diſpoſition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholeſome, and the ſummer heat much more temperate than in the flat ſandy coaſt.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and ſoil have ſomething in them ſo kindly, that the latter, when left to itſelf, naturally throws out an immenſe quantity of flowers and flowering ſhrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement we might have ſilk, wine, and oil from thoſe colonies: of the firſt we have ſeen ſamples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious encreaſe.

From what we have obſerved of theſe valuable provinces, their productions appear to be, vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peaſe, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange, citron, cypreſs, ſaſſafras, oak, walnut, caſſia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding ſilk-worms; ſarſaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, roſin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds; and another, which yields a balm, thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beſides theſe, that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent ſpirits, and mead as good as Malaga ſack. Of all theſe, the three great ſtaple commodities at preſent are, indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing ſurprizes an European more at firſt ſight, than the ſize of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or

limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of theſe trunks, when hollowed, the people of Charles-Town as well as the Indians make canoes, which ſerve to tranſport proviſions and other goods from place to place, and ſome of them are ſo large, that they will carry 30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of theſe are likewiſe made curious pleaſure-boats.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country, do not differ much from thoſe of Virginia; but in Carolina they have a ſtill greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiouſly: to have 2 or 300 cows is very common, but ſome have a thouſand or upwards. Theſe ramble all day at pleaſure in the foreſts; but their calves being ſeparated and kept in fenced paſtures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the ſame manner, and return like the cows; theſe are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horſes, in the woods. It is ſurprizing that the cattle ſhould have encreaſed ſo quickly ſince their being firſt imported from Europe, while there are ſuch numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers, conſtantly ranging the woods and foreſts. We have already obſerved that theſe animals are leſs ravenous than the beaſts of Africa and Aſia; they very ſeldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } The firſt Engliſh expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. Nothing ſucceſsful was done in this way till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, and others of great diſtinction, obtained a charter from the crown, inveſting them with the property and juriſdiction of this country. They parcelled out their lands to ſuch as were willing to go over into the new ſettlement, and to ſubmit to a ſyſtem of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compoſe for them.

They began their firſt ſettlement at a point of land towards the ſouthward of their diſtrict, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-Town, which was deſigned to be what it now is, the capital of the province. In time, however, as no reſtriction had been laid upon the religious principles of thoſe who ſettled in Carolina, the diſputes between the church of England-men and diſſenters cauſed a total confuſion in the colony. This was rendered ſtill more intolerable by the incurſions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their inſolence and injuſtice. In order to prevent the fatal conſequences of theſe inteſtine diviſions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was paſſed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000 l. for both the property and juriſdiction; and the conſtitution of this colony in thoſe reſpects in which it differed from the royal colonies was altered. Earl Granville, however, thought fit to retain his ſeventh ſhare, which is ſtill in the poſſeſſion of his family. For the more convenient adminiſtration of affairs too, Carolina was divided into two diſtricts, and two ſeparate governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time peace being reſtored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, theſe provinces began to breathe, and their trade has advanced of late with wonderful rapidity.

The ſettlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when ſeveral public-ſpirited noblemen and others, from compaſſion to the poor of the kingdom

kingdoms, ſubſcribed a conſiderable ſum, which, with 10,000 l. from the government, was given to provide in neceſſaries ſuch poor perſons as were willing to tranſport themſelves into this province, and to ſubmit to the regulations impoſed on them. In proceſs of time, new ſums were raiſed, and new inhabitants ſent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 perſons were ſettled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great diſtance from their benefactors, and from the check and controul of thoſe who had a natural influence over them, would ſubmit to the magiſtrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themſelves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they encreaſed in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard that they ſhould be deprived of. From theſe corrupt ſources aroſe all the bad humours which tore to pieces this conſtitution of government. Diſſentions of all kinds ſprung up, and the colony was on the brink of deſtruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the ſame footing with the Carolinas.

The method of ſettling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of Britiſh America, was to pitch upon a void ſpace of ground, and either to purchaſe it at the rate of 20 l. for 1000 acres, and one ſhilling quit-rent for every 100 acres; or otherwiſe, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchaſe money: the former method is the moſt common, and the tenor a freehold. The people of Carolina live in the ſame eaſy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already deſcribed. Poverty is here almoſt an entire ſtranger; and the planters are the moſt hoſpitable people that are to be met with to all ſtrangers, and eſpecially to ſuch as by accident or misfortunes are rendered incapable to provide for themſelves.

The only town in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles-Town, the metropolis, in South-Carolina, which for ſize, beauty, and trade, may be conſidered as one of the firſt in Britiſh America. I have already mentioned its admirable ſituation on the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ſhips 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every reſpect, but that of a bar, which hinders veſſels of more than 200 tons burden from entering. The town is regularly and pretty ſtrongly fortified by nature and art; the ſtreets are well cut; the houſes are large and well built, ſome of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handſome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, interſecting each other at right angles; thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about 1000 houſes, and is the ſeat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the aſſembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond deſcription. Several handſome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; the people are ſhewy and expenſive in their dreſs and way of living; ſo that every thing conſpires to make this by much the livelieſt, the lovelieſt, and politeſt place, as it is one of the richeſt too, in all America. It ought alſo to be obſerved, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that, when in common with the other colonies, they reſolved againſt the uſe of certain luxuries, and even neceſſaries of life; thoſe articles which improve the mind, enlarge the underſtanding, and correct the taſte, were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as formerly.

As South-Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employs 140 ſhips, while that of the other two does not employ 60. Its exports to Great-Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amount to more than 395,000 l. annual value; and its imports at 365,000 l. The exports of North-Carolina are computed at more than 68,000 l. and its imports at about 18,000 l. The trade of Georgia is likewiſe in its infancy; the exports amount to a little more than 74,000 l. and the imports at 49,000 l.

The trade between Carolina and the Weſt-Indies is the ſame in all reſpects with that of the reſt of the colonies, and is very large: their trade with the Indians is likewiſe in a very flouriſhing condition; and they carry Engliſh goods on pack-horſes 5 or 600 miles into the country weſt of Charles-Town.

The mouths of the rivers in North-Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, veſſels of above 70 or 80 tons. This lays a weight upon their trade by the expence of lighterage. Edenton was formerly the capital of North-Carolina, which is no more than a trifling village; but they are now projecting a town farther ſouth, which is more eccentrical.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiouſly ſituated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the ſea, upon a noble river of the ſame name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the ſecond town, called Auguſta, which ſtands in a country of the greateſt fertility, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you ſee the whole courſe of the river towards the ſea; and on the other hand, you ſee the river for about 60 miles up into the country. Here the Rev. Mr. George Whitefield (who uſed to croſs the Atlantic every other year) founded an orphan-houſe, which is now converted into a college for the education of young men deſigned chiefly for the miniſtry: and through his zeal and pious care, this favourite ſeminary is at preſent in a thriving condition.

EAST and WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length 500	between	80 and 91	weſt longitude.
Breadth 440		25 and 32	north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Spain to Great-Britain by the late treaty of peace, and includes a part of Louiſiana, is now divided into the governments of Eaſt and Weſt Florida. See the Royal Proclamation.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Miſſiſippi, which forms the weſtern boundary of Florida, and is one of the fineſt in the world, as well as the largeſt; for including its turnings and windings, it is ſuppoſed to run a courſe of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with ſands and ſhoals, which deny acceſs to veſſels of any conſiderable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pittman ſays ſeventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is

is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almoſt to its ſource. The Mobille, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are alſo large and noble ſtreams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are, St. Bernard's, Aſcenſion, Mobille, Penſacola, Dauphin, Joſeph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, St. Auguſtine, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninſula, which terminates the Britiſh America ſouthward.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] It is very difficult to reconcile the various accounts that have been given of theſe particulars in this country. The people who have obtained grants of lands in Florida, and are deſirous to ſettle or ſell them, repreſent the whole country as a Canaan, and St. Auguſtine, in Eaſt-Florida, as the Montpelier of America: they tell us, that the climate of Florida is an exceeding agreeable medium between the ſcorching heat of the tropics, and the pinching cold of the northern latitudes; that there is indeed a change of the ſeaſons, but it is a moderate one: in November and December, many trees loſe their leaves, vegetation goes on ſlowly, and the winter is perceived, but ſo mild, that ſnow is never ſeen there; and the tendereſt plants of the Weſt-Indies, ſuch as the plantain, the allegator-pear-tree, the banana, the pine-apple, the ſugar-cane, &c. remain unhurt during the winter, in the gardens of St. Auguſtine: that the fogs and dark gloomy weather, ſo common in England, are unknown in this country. And though at the equinoxes, eſpecially the autumnal, the rains fall very heavy every day for ſome weeks together, yet, when the ſhower is over, the ſky immediately clears up, and all is calm and ſerene.

Others have repreſented this very coaſt as the grave and burying-place of all ſtrangers who are ſo unhappy as to go there, affirming as a truth, the well known ſtory propagated ſoon after the laſt peace: that upon the landing of our troops to take poſſeſſion of Florida, the Spaniards aſked them "What crimes have you been guilty of at home?" We ſhall take the liberty to obſerve on this head, that though the air here is very warm, the heats are much allayed by cool breezes from the ſeas which inviron and waſh a conſiderable part of this country. The inland countries towards the north feel a little of the roughneſs of the north-weſt wind, which, more or leſs, diffuſes its chilling breath over the whole continent of North-America, carrying froſt and ſnow many degrees more to the ſouthward in theſe regions, than the north-eaſt wind does in Europe.

That the air of Florida is pure and wholeſome, appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Floridan Indians, who in theſe reſpects far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours, the Mexicans. That when the Spaniards quitted St. Auguſtine, many of them were of great age, ſome above 90. Since it came into the hands of Great-Britain, many gentlemen in a deep conſumption have aſcribed the recovery of their health to that climate; and it is a certain fact, that the ninth regiment, ſtationed on different parts of the coaſt, did not loſe a ſingle man by natural death in the ſpace of twenty months.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } Many of the diſadvantages indiſcriminately imputed to the ſoil of the whole

whole country, ſhould be confined to Eaſt-Florida, which indeed, near the ſea, and 40 miles back, is flat and ſandy. But even the country round St. Auguſtine, in all appearance the worſt in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a larger ſize, and produce better fruit, than in Spain and Portugal. The inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing ſpontaneouſly the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewiſe favourable to the rearing of European productions. There is not, on the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by nature to afford not only all the neceſſaries of life, but alſo all the pleaſures of habitation, than that part of Weſt Florida, which lies upon the banks of the Miſſiſippi.

From the climate of Florida, and ſome ſpecimens ſent home, there is reaſon to expect, that cotton, ſugar, wine, and ſilk, will grow here as well as in Perſia, India, and China, which are in the ſame latitudes. This country alſo produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quickſilver, pit-coal, and iron ore: pearls are found in great abundance on the coaſt of Florida: mahogany grows on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula, but inferior in ſize and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here ſo numerous, that you may purchaſe a good ſaddle-horſe, in exchange for goods of five ſhillings value prime coſt; and there are inſtances of horſes being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. Notwithſtanding the luxuriancy of the ſoil, the ſalubrity of the air, the cheapneſs and plenty of proviſions, the encouragement of the Britiſh government, (See the proclamation) and the wiſe meaſures taken by the governors ſent thither to ſettle theſe provinces, the number of Engliſh inhabitants is yet very inconſiderable, and, in all appearance, the increaſe of population will be here extremely ſlow, and that proceeding from unavoidable cauſes.

When we conſider the long and deſtructive wars which the mother country has ſupported by ſea and land againſt the houſe of Bourbon; the emigrations to our other ſettlements in North America, the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies; the numerous manufactures carrying on at home; and the prodigious ſhipping employed in tranſporting theſe to every corner of the globe; it would appear, that, inſtead of peopling our colonies, we wanted a ſupply of hands at home; and, of courſe, the acquiſition of a new territory, without people to plant it, muſt be an incumbrance to the mother country, eſpecially as the civil and military eſtabliſhment of both Floridas are ſaid to coſt the government near 100,000l. per annum.

If, for this purpoſe, we look to the northern colonies of America, we ſhall find them leſs able, and the people leſs diſpoſed to relinquiſh countries which preſent them with all the comforts of life in vaſt abundance, and where they live in affluence, eaſe and ſafety. Is any planter able to improve more ground; or, does the increaſe of his family and ſtock require 1000 acres more to his eſtate? the vaſt regions behind (for, comparatively ſpeaking, little more than the ſea coaſt of North America is yet cleared and inhabited by Europeans) preſent themſelves to his view. For a penny an acre in ſome places, and a halfpenny

in others, annually, he may traverſe the foreſt, chooſe out the moſt enchanting ſituation, upon the banks of a fine navigable river, and fix upon as much ground as he can poſſibly cultivate. Is he ambitious to became a freeholder? for the value of a ſuit of clothes he may purchaſe 500 acres; the fertility of which, in a few years, puts him on a reſpectable footing with his neighbours, and ſometimes gives him a ſeat in the provincial aſſembly.

It has been therefore hinted, that the chief advantage to be derived to Great-Britain from the poſſeſſion of Florida, ariſes from its ſituation; ſerving as a frontier againſt the incurſions of our enemies; that its ports, ſituated in the gulph of Mexico (See the map of North America) will always be a check upon Spain, as it commands the paſſage between her ſettlements; for the galeons, and other veſſels, in their paſſage from Vera Cruz in Mexico to the Havannah, are obliged, by reaſon of their north-eaſt trade winds, to ſtretch away to the northward, and generally keep as near the coaſt of Florida as poſſible. And that in time of war with that nation, or her ally the French, the harbours of Florida are moſt commodiouſly ſituated for a place of rendezvous and refreſhment to the royal navy ſent to protect our own Weſt-India iſlands, or attack thoſe belonging to France and Spain.

But theſe advantages, great as they are, ſeem totally eclipſed, when we conſider the ſituation of Florida, in a commercial view; for though hitherto, while in a wild, uncultivated ſtate, its productions have entered very little into the general ſcale of Britiſh commerce, we have ſtill a proſpect of eſtabliſhing and carrying on a trade with the Spaniſh colonies; it being certain that a regular intercourſe might be eſtabliſhed with them, which would open a vent for the commodities of Great-Britain, and yield returns for them in gold and ſilver, the moſt profitable of all kinds of commerce.

The chief town in Weſt Florida is Penſacola, N. lat. 30-22. W. lon. 87-20, which is ſituated within the bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road is, however, one of the beſt in all the gulph of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind, being ſurrounded by land on every ſide. This place ſends, in ſkins, logwood, dying ſtuffs, and ſilver in dollars, to the annual value of 63,000 l. and receives of our manufactures, at an average of three years, to the value of 97,000 l.

St. Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt Florida, N. lat. 29-45. W. lon. 81-12. runs along the ſhore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and encloſed with a ditch. It is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is well furniſhed with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, which form two channels, whoſe bars, at low tides, have eight feet water. Our exports to St. Auguſtine amount to little more than 7000 l. per annum; its exports have hitherto been nothing more than the produce of ſome little trade carried on with the Indians.

The low ſtate of commerce in Florida ariſes from this, that no European nation had, before the concluſion of the late war, made it an object of attention; but ſince that period, its importance becomes more known. Its climate and ſoil are extremely favourable for the raiſing of ſilk. Some attempts indeed have been made in Carolina and Georgia, where

where in one place the raiſing of ſilk is become a kind of ſtaple commodity; but there the worms are often injured by the cold mornings, at other times they are benumbed and made ſickly for want of warmth, and ſometimes actually deſtroyed; an inconvenience which is alſo frequently experienced in Italy: but the more ſouthern climate of Florida has placed this tender inſect beyond the reach of ſuch diſaſters; and experience will ſhew, that the air and climate of this country is as favourable to the ſilk-worm as it is to the mulberry-tree on which it feeds, and which grows here in its utmoſt luxuriancy. The numerous vines too, which grow up ſpontaneouſly in the foreſts of this country, ſeem to invite us to cultivate the grape, and to prognoſticate, that the produce of Florida may, with proper cultivation, gladden the heart of Britons in future ages.

We have already mentioned the difficulty of peopling this country from Great Britain or her colonies, but, with ſuitable encouragement from government, foreigners might be invited thither, ſuch as Germans from the Rhine, Moſelle, and other parts where they cultivate vineyards; proteſtants from the ſouth of France, uſed to the culture of ſilk, olives, &c. Greeks from the Levant, who are groaning under the Turkiſh yoke, and are an induſtrious people, well ſkilled in the cultivation of cotton, vines, raiſins, currants, olives, almonds, and ſilk-worms; for which the climate of Florida is ſo well adapted. And herein may be perceived the value of this country to Great Britain; for though from the variety of climates in the extenſive empire of Britiſh America, reaching in a direct line from the frozen wilds of Labrador, where the hardy inhabitants, cloathed in furs, wander amidſt eternal ſnow, to the ſultry regions within the tropics, where, ſeated in the heart of a luxuriant ſoil, the wealthy planter ſhelters himſelf from the ſcorching ſun by the ſpreading umbrella; we command a much greater number of articles of commerce and the conveniencies of life than any nation on earth, yet it is to Florida that we muſt look for ſilk, wine, and ſome other articles, and theſe too of the beſt ſorts, which hitherto we purchaſed, and do ſtill purchaſe in immenſe quantities, from different powers of Europe and Aſia; nor can a rich and trading nation poſſibly be without them, as we daily experience from the quantity of treaſure ſent annually to China for ſilk.

To what has been obſerved reſpecting the climate, ſoil, and produce of Florida, we ſhall take the liberty to give the following extracts from ſome letters of a gentleman who went to St. Auguſtine about the year 1764, in a conſumptive ſtate of health.

May 15, 1767. "I am much obliged to you for your enquiry after my health; I have agreed with Florida extremely well: indeed this country is in general very healthy, and till laſt autumn we had no ſick here, and then our ſickneſs was not mortal, although very much ſo in every other part of America. I believe my friends do not know that we are ſo near Charles-Town, and that we have not only a water but a land communication with that place. Sending letters by the packet is very tedious, as they muſt go round by the Weſt-Indies."

April 16, 1768. "You cannot conceive how agreeable it is for people in ſuch an exotic country as this, to receive a European letter. This country, in all probability, will make a figure ſoon, as a number of gentlemen of conſiderable property, both from England and Scotland, have obtained orders from his majeſty for grants of lands in this province,

and

and are now buſy in forming plantations. Between 6 and 700 working ſlaves are already in the colony of Eaſt Florida.

And in a third letter, received in 1770, there is the following intelligence. "This goes by a veſſel of Mr. ———, which arrived here ſome time ago with a cargoe of ſlaves from the coaſt of Africa; ſhe ſails from this to-morrow directly for your port of London, and carries our firſt produce to that market, viz. between 8 and 9000 weight of indigo, ſome cotton, rice, and deer-ſkins; likewiſe ſome ſhip-timber, by way of trial. This province bids fair to exceed all the other American provinces in the article of Indigo, as the plant ſtands the winter, that is, ſhoots up from the old roots in the ſpring; by which means we have a full cutting more than they have to the northward. Our quantity this year is ſmall, but the quality remarkably good. Some of our planters have vanity enough to think they are entitled to the medal given by the Society for the encouragement of Arts, &c. and have applied for it accordingly."

WEST INDIES.

WE have already obſerved, that between the two continents of America, lie an innumerable multitude of iſlands, which we call the Weſt Indies, and which, ſuch as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland and Denmark. As the climate and ſeaſons of theſe iſlands differ widely from what we can form any idea of, from what we perceive at home, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them in general, as well as ſome other particulars that are peculiar to the Weſt-Indies.

The climate in all our Weſt-India iſlands, is nearly the ſame, allowing for thoſe accidental differences which the ſeveral ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and that the ſun goes quite over their heads, paſſing beyond them to the north, and never returning further from any of them than about 30 degrees to the ſouth, they are continually ſubjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian ſun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from its center, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

By the ſame remarkable Providence in the diſpoſing of things, it is, that when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, as ſhield them from his direct beams; and diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the Weſt Indies (and we may add in the Eaſt Indies) are by no means ſo moderate as with us. Our heavieſt rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuoſity; the rivers riſe in a moment;

new

new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time all the low country is under water. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their ſource within the tropics, ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon; and ſo miſtaken were the antients in their idea of the torrid zone, which they imagined to be dried and ſcorched up, with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reaſon uninhabitable: when in reality, ſome of the largeſt rivers of the world have their courſe within its limits, and the moiſture is one of the greateſt inconveniencies of the climate in ſeveral places.

The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no froſt, no ſnows, and but rarely ſome hail; the ſtorms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailſtones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moiſture, which alone does not ſeem to be a ſufficient cauſe, or to a greater quantity of a ſulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are ſubject to the action of ſuch cauſes, ruſt and canker in a very ſhort time: and this cauſe, perhaps as much as the heat itſelf, contributes to make the climate of the Weſt Indies unfriendly and unpleaſant to an European conſtitution.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon (principally in the month of Auguſt, more rarely in July and September) that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes; the moſt terrible calamity to which they are ſubject (as well as the people in the Eaſt Indies) from the climate; this deſtroys, at a ſtroke, the labours of many years, and proſtrates the moſt exalted hopes of the planter, and often juſt at the moment when he thinks himſelf out of the reach of fortune. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance, which the elements can aſſemble, that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt, they ſee as the prelude to the enſuing havock, whole fields of ſugar canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country. The ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; their windmills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeveral hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houſes are no protection, the roofs are torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which in an hour riſes five feet, ruſhes in upon them with an irreſiſtible violence.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon. If it comes at the full moon, obſerve theſe ſigns. The day you will ſee the ſky very turbulent: you will obſerve the ſun more red than at other times: you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all thoſe clouds and miſts which uſually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling ſound, like the ruſhing of a great wind. At night the ſtars ſeem much larger than uſual, and ſurrounded with a ſort of burr; the north-weſt ſky has a black and menacing look; the ſea emits a ſtrong ſmell, and riſes into vaſt waves, often without any wind; the wind itſelf now forſakes its uſual ſteady eaſterly ſtream, and ſhifts about to the weſt; from whence it ſometimes blows with intermiſſion violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herſelf

herſelf is ſurrounded with a great bur, and ſometimes the ſun has the ſame appearance. Theſe are ſigns which the Indians of theſe iſlands taught our planters, by which they can prognoſticate the approach of an hurricane.

The grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt Indies is ſugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China, in very early times, from whence we had the firſt knowledge of it; but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt, as one of the materials of a very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not ſettled whether the cane, from which this ſubſtance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought hither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portugueſe, from India and the coaſt of Africa (ſee page 602) but however the matter may be, in the beginning they made the moſt, as they ſtill do the beſt ſugar which comes to market in this part of the world. The juice within the ſugar-cane is the moſt lively, elegant, and leaſt cloying ſweet in nature; and which, ſucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholeſome. From the molaſſes rum is diſtilled, and from the ſcummings of the ſugar, a meaner ſpirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America (where it is conſumed by the Engliſh inhabitants, or employed in the Indian trade, or diſtributed from thence to the fiſhery of Newfoundland, and the African commerce;) beſides what comes to Great-Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molaſſes is taken off raw, and carried to New England, to be diſtilled there. The tops of the cane, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fire; ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molaſſes pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have ſeen, and by others which we may eaſily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the Weſt-Indies are very great, and the profits at the firſt view precarious; for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and diſtilling houſes, and the buying and ſubſiſting a ſuitable number of ſlaves and cattle, will not ſuffer any man to begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt 5000 l. Neither is the life of a planter, if a means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleneſs and luxury; at all times he muſt keep a watchful eye upon his overſeers, and even overſee himſelf occaſionally. But at the boiling ſeaſon, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a conſtant attendance day and night, to the extreme united heats of the climate, and ſo many fierce furnaces; add to this, the loſſes by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad ſeaſons; and then conſider when the ſugars are in the caſk, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ſhips his produce at his own riſk. Theſe conſiderations might make one believe that it could never anſwer to engage in this buſineſs; but notwithſtanding all this, there are no parts in the world, in which great eſtates are made in ſo ſhort a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the Weſt-Indies. The produce of a few good ſeaſons, generally provide againſt the ill effects of the worſt, as the planter is ſure of a

ſpeedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier ſale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overſeer, who has commonly a ſalary of 150l. a year, with overſeers under him in proportion to the greatneſs of the plantation, one to about 30 negroes, and at the rate of about 40 l. Such plantations too have a ſurgeon at a fixed ſalary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the courſe which is the leaſt troubleſome to the owner of the eſtate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the ſtock of cattle and ſlaves, to a tenant, who gives ſecurity for the payment of the rent, and the keeping up repairs and ſtock. The eſtate is generally eſtimated to ſuch a tenant at half the neat produce of the best years; ſuch tenants, if induſtrious and frugal men, ſoon make good eſtates for themſelves.

The negroes in the plantations are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate. This is generally by alloting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: ſome are ſubſiſted in this manner, but others find their negroes with a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork a day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, ſtockings and ſhoes; the whole not exceeding 40 s. a year, and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12 l. The price of men negroes upon their firſt arrival is from 33 to 36 l. women and grown boys about 50 s. leſs; but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſlands generally bring above 40 l. upon an average one with another, and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man expert in buſineſs bringing 150 guineas, and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

To particularize the commodities proper for the Weſt-India market would be to enumerate all the neceſſaries, conveniencies, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, ſpices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they ſell, but from the numerous ſhipping conſtantly arriving from Europe, and a continual ſucceſſion of new adventurers, each of whom carrying out more or leſs as a venture, the Weſt India market is frequently overſtocked, money muſt be raiſed, and goods are ſometimes ſold at prime coſt or under. But thoſe who can afford to ſtore their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftſmen, eſpecially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the Weſt-Indies, that phyſicians and ſurgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the late war, there were allowed to be in our Weſt India at leaſt 230,000 negro ſlaves; and upon the higheſt calculation, the whites there in all did not amount to 90,000 ſouls. This diſproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more viſible every day, ſome writers have endeavoured to account for, by alledging, that the enterprizing ſpirit, which the novelty of the object, and various other current cauſes, had produced in the laſt century, has decayed very much. That the diſpoſition of the Weſt Indians themſelves, who for cheapneſs chooſe to do every thing by negroes, which can poſſibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the ſmall number of whites of the iſlands.

ſtations. Such indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in conſtant terror of inſurrections and plots, many families employ 25 or 30 negroes as menial ſervants, who are infinitely the moſt dangerous of the ſlaves, and in caſe of any inſurrection, they have it more in their power to ſtrike a ſudden and fatal blow.

The firſt obſervation we think is not well founded; that enterprizing ſpirit which firſt led Britons out to diſcovery, and colonization, ſtill animates in a very conſiderable degree, the people of this nation, but the field is now more ample and enlarged; emigrants have greater ſcope whereon to range; the Britiſh empire extends with incredible ſtrides. Beſides the vaſt continent of North America, which takes in ſuch a variety of climates; diſcovers ſuch richneſs of ſoil; where the people live under various modes of religion, laws and government, and all admirably ſuited to Britiſh tempers; the Eaſt Indies, an inexhauſtible mine of riches, begins to draw the attention of mankind from that of the Weſt. Countries, as well as individuals, obtain a name and reputation for ſomething extraordinary, and have their day. Thither many of the beſt families of this nation, are ambitious of procuring places for their ſons in the army, or the compting-houſe. Here is an ample field for all adventurous ſpirits, who diſdaining an idle life at home, and ambitious of becoming uſeful to themſelves, their connections, or the community, boldly venture into the immenſe regions of this eaſtern world. Others, full as remote from an indolent diſpoſition, but with leſs conduct and inferior abilities, ſet out with the moſt ſanguine hopes. Theſe are your fiery, reſtleſs tempers, willing to undertake the ſevereſt labour provided it promiſes but a ſhort continuance, who love riſk and hazard, whoſe ſchemes are always vaſt, and who put no medium between being great and being undone.

THE iſlands of the Weſt Indies lie in the form of a bow, or ſemicircle, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida north, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the firſt inhabitants; tho' this is a term that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward Iſlands. Sailors diſtinguiſh them into Windward and Leeward iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Portobello. The geographical tables and maps, diſtinguiſh them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] The firſt that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and alſo the moſt important, after leaving Florida, is Jamaica, which lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of weſt longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the eaſt and weſt it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in the breadth, growing leſs towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles ſouth-weſt of England.

This iſland is interſected with a ridge of ſteep rocks tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a ſtupendous manner upon one another. Theſe rocks, though containing no ſoil on their ſurface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flouriſhing in a perpetual ſpring; they are nouriſhed by the rains, which often fall, or the miſts which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their roots penetrating the crannies of the rocks, induſtriouſly ſeek out for their own ſupport. From the rocks iſſue a vaſt number of ſmall rivers of pure wholeſome water which tumble

down in cataracts, and together with the ſtupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees, through which they flow, form a moſt delightful landſcape. On each ſide of this great chain of mountains, are ridges of lower ones, which diminiſh as they remove from it. On theſe coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies or plains between theſe ridges, are level beyond what is ordinary in moſt other countries, and the ſoil is prodigiouſly fertile.

The longeſt day in ſummer is about thirteen hours, and the ſhorteſt in winter about eleven; but the moſt uſual diviſions of the ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies, are into the dry and wet ſeaſons. The air of this iſland is, in moſt places, exceſſive hot and unfavourable to European conſtitutions; but the cool ſea breezes, which ſet in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almoſt every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and roars with aſtoniſhing loudneſs, and the lightning in theſe violent ſtorms, frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue ſometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found ſeveral ſalt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spaniſh Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the moſt terrible endemial diſtempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greateſt and moſt valuable production of this iſland. Cocoas were formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces alſo ginger, and the pimento, or as it is called Jamaica Pepper; the wild cinnamon tree, whoſe bark is ſo uſeful in medicine; the manchineel, whoſe fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worſt poiſons in nature; the mahogany, in ſuch uſe with our cabinet-makers, and of the moſt valuable quality, but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars of a large ſize and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardneſs of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much eſteemed by the ſavages, both in food and medicine; the ſoap-tree, whoſe berries anſwer all purpoſes of waſhing; the mangrove and olive bark, uſeful to tanners; the fuſtic and redwood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is ſtill ſo. No ſort of European grain grow here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them reſembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruit, as has been already obſerved, grow in great plenty; citrons, ſeville and china oranges, common and ſweet lemons, limes, ſhadocks, pomegranates, mamees, ſourſops, papas, pine-apples, cuſtard apples, ſweet apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and ſeveral kinds of berries, alſo garden ſtuffs in great plenty and good. The cattle bred on this iſland are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs, many plantations have hundreds of them, and their fleſh is exceeding ſweet and delicate. Their horſes are ſmall, mettleſome and hardy; and when well made generally ſell for 30 or 40 l. ſterling. Jamaica likewiſe ſupplies the apothecary with guaiacum, ſarſaparilla, China, caſſia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and ſea turtle, and the alligator. Ha-

are all ſorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parrokets, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, Guinea hens, geeſe, ducks and turkies; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fiſh. The mountains breed numberleſs adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do the guana and gallewaſp: but theſe laſt are not venomous. Among the inſects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and membraneous parts of the fleſh of the negroes, and the white people are ſometimes plagued with them. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a penknife, taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They ſometimes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh to the very bone.

This iſland was originally a part of the Spaniſh empire in America. Several deſcents had been made upon it by the Engliſh, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year, that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a ſquadron, under Pen and Venables, to reduce the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, but there this ſquadron was unſucceſsful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a deſcent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital St. Iago, ſoon compelled the whole iſland to ſurrender. Ever ſince it has been ſubject to the Engliſh, and the government of it is one of the richeſt places, next to that of Ireland, in the diſpoſal of the crown, the ſtanding ſalary being 2,500 l. per annum, and the aſſembly commonly voting the governor as much more, which, with the other perquiſites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000 l. per annum.

We have already obſerved, that the government of all the American iſlands is the ſame, namely, that kind, which we have formerly deſcribed under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is univerſally of the church of England; though they have no biſhop, the biſhop of London's commiſſary being the chief religious magiſtrate in thoſe parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the numbers of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and that of the negroes to 120,000. It appears at preſent that Jamaica is rather on the decline, as is the number of inhabitants, the whites not exceeding 25,000, and the blacks 90,000. Beſides theſe, a number of fugitive negroes have formed a ſort of colony among the blue mountains, independant of the whites, with whom they make treaties, and are in ſome reſpects uſeful to the inhabitants of the iſland, particularly in ſending back run-a-way ſlaves.

Indigo was once very greatly cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the iſland to ſo great a degree, that in the pariſh of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are ſaid to have had no leſs than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number I do not imagine even the whole iſland exceeds at this day; and there is great reaſon to believe, that there were many more perſons of property in Jamaica formerly than are now, though perhaps they had not thoſe vaſt fortunes, which dazzle us in ſuch a manner at preſent. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diſeaſes, which, treading on the heels of the former calamities, ſwept away vaſt multitudes. The decreaſe of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their

commerce, ariſes from the difficulties to which their trade is expoſed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain: as that they are of late deprived of the moſt beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spaniſh coaſt; the low value of their produce, which they aſcribe to the great improvements the French make in their ſugar colonies, which are enabled to underſel them by the lowneſs of their duties; the trade carried on from Ireland, and the northern colonies, to the French and Dutch iſlands, where they pay no duties, and are ſupplied with goods at an eaſier rate. Some of theſe complaints, which equally affect the other iſlands, have been heard, others ſtill remain unredreſſed. Both the logwood trade, and this contraband have been the ſubject of much contention, and the cauſe of a war between Great Britain, and the Spaniſh nation. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right; and was at the laſt peace confirmed to us. The latter we permitted; becauſe we thought, and very juſtly, that if the Spaniards found themſelves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a ſtop to it, by their guarda coſtas, which cruize in theſe ſeas, purpoſely to ſeize and confiſcate ſuch veſſels and cargoes, as are found in this trade. In this manner did the Britiſh court argue, till that fatal period, when, in compliance with the court of Spain, Engliſh cruizers were ſent, more effectually to cruſh that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of Britiſh ſubjects in America have complained, as it put a ſtop to the principal channel which hitherto enabled them to remit ſo largely to Great Britain.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable to contain 1000 ſail of large ſhips, and of ſuch depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greateſt eaſe, weighed ſo much with the inhabitants, that they choſe to build their capital on this ſpot, though the place was a hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life, not even freſh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the reſort of pirates, made it a place of great conſideration. Theſe pirates were called Buccaneers, they fought with an inconſiderate bravery, and then ſpent their fortune in this capital with as inconſiderate diſſipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its ſize, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, as to leave, in one quarter, not even the ſmalleſt veſtige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and ſwallowed up nine-tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand people. The water guſhed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were caſt away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes, and did not overſet, but afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who ſaved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, ſays, the earth opened and ſhut very quick in ſome places, and he ſaw ſeveral people ſink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads juſt above ground, and were ſqueezed to death. At Savannah, above a thouſand acres were ſunk with the houſes and people in them; the place appearing for ſome time

like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houſes were ſeen. In ſome parts, mountains were ſplit; and at one place a plantation was removed to the diſtance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city, but it was a ſecond time, ten years after, deſtroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour, tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbiſh by a hurricane, the moſt terrible on record. Such repeated calamities ſeemed to mark out this place as a devoted ſpot; the inhabitants therefore reſolved to forſake it for ever, and to reſide at the oppoſite bay, where they built Kingſton, which is lately become the capital of the iſland. It conſiſts of upwards of 1000 houſes, many of them handſomely built, and in the taſte of theſe iſlands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one ſtory high, with porticos, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingſton ſtands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spaniſh town, which, tho' at preſent inferior to Kingſton, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is ſtill the ſeat of government, and the place where the courts of juſtice are held.

The whole product of the iſland may be reduced to theſe heads. Firſt, ſugars, of which they exported in 1753, 20,315 hogſheads, ſome vaſtly great, even to a tun weight, which cannot be worth leſs in England than 424,725 l. Moſt of this goes to London, Briſtol, and Glaſgow, and ſome part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheeſe, corn, peas, ſtaves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. Second, rum, of which they export about 4000 puncheons. The rum of this iſland is generally eſteemed the beſt, and is the moſt uſed in Great Britain. Third, molaſſes, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vaſt diſtilleries. All theſe are the produce of the grand ſtaple the ſugar cane. Fourth, cotton, of which they ſend out 2000 bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconſiderable, but ſome cocoa and coffee are exported, with a conſiderable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweetmeats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma, for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they did drive a vaſt and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spaniſh Main goes on, which it will be impoſſible for Spain to ſtop, while it is ſo profitable to the Britiſh merchant, and whilſt the Spaniſh officers, from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhew ſo great a reſpect to preſents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilſt they appear to live in ſuch a ſtate of luxury, as in moſt other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes in a manner inſtantly. Their equipages, their cloaths, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greateſt wealth and profuſion imaginable. This obliges all the treaſure they receive, to make but a very ſhort ſtay, being hardly more than ſufficient to anſwer the calls of their neceſſity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of ſilk, and veſts trimmed with ſilver. At other times they generally wear only thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a

check ſhirt. The negroes, except thoſe who attend gentlemen, who have them dreſſed in their own livery, have once a year Oſnaburghs, and a blanket for cloathing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a looſe night-gown, careleſly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off their diſhabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantages of a rich and becoming dreſs.

The common drink of perſons in affluent circumſtances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter ſells for a ſhilling per bottle. But the general drink, eſpecially among thoſe of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call Kill-Devil, becauſe, being frequently drank to exceſs, it heats the blood, brings on fevers, which in a few hours ſends them to the grave, eſpecially thoſe who are juſt come to the iſland, which is the reaſon that ſo many die here upon their firſt arrival.

Engliſh money is ſeldom ſeen here, the current coin being entirely Spaniſh. There is no place where ſilver is ſo plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for leſs than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets beef, pork, fowl, and fiſh, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton ſells at nine-pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb: there are indeed ſome gentlemen well verſed in literature, and who ſend their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous diſſipation.

The miſery and hardſhips of the negroes is truly moving; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported to the Weſt-Indies, to ſupply the place of thoſe who pine and die by the hardſhips they receive. They are indeed ſtubborn and untractable for the moſt part, and they muſt be ruled with a rod of iron, but they ought not to be cruſhed with it, or to be thought a ſort of beaſts, without ſouls, as ſome of their overſeers do at preſent, tho' ſome of theſe tyrants are themſelves the dregs of this nation, and the refuſe of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their ſituations eaſy and comfortable; and it has been obſerved, that in North-America, where in general theſe poor wretches are better uſed, there is a leſs waſte of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it ſeems clear, from the whole courſe of hiſtory, that thoſe nations which have behaved with the greateſt humanity to their ſlaves, were always beſt ſerved, and run the leaſt hazard from their rebellions. The ſlaves, on their firſt arrival from the coaſt of Guinea, are expoſed naked to ſale; they are then generally very ſimple and innocent creatures, but they ſoon become roguiſh enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuſe their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is ſo agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burden of life eaſy, which would otherwiſe to many of them be quite intolerable. They look on death as a bleſſing, and it is ſurprizing to ſee with what courage and intrepidity ſome of them meet it; they are quite tranſported to think their ſlavery is near at an end, that they ſhall reviſit their native ſhores, and ſee their old friends

friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow ſlaves kiſs him, and wiſh him a good journey, and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES.] This iſland, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbees, is ſituated in 59 deg. W. lon. and 13 deg. N. lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. When the Engliſh, ſome time after the year 1625, firſt landed here, they found it the moſt ſavage and deſtitute place they had hitherto viſited. It had not the leaſt appearance of ever having been peopled even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſts of paſture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for ſupporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was ſo good, and the ſoil appearing fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortune in England, reſolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were ſo large, and of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence. By unremitting perſeverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable ſupport; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, anſwered tolerably. Theſe proſpects, together with the ſtorm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport themſelves into this iſland. And what is extremely remarkable, ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its firſt ſettlement, that in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian ſlaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery. A practice, which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcilable to us ever ſince. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate ſugar, which ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of ſlaves therefore was ſtill augmented: and in 1676, it is ſuppoſed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this ſmall ſpot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 ſail of ſhips, one with another of 150 tuns, in their trade. Their annual exports in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, was above 350,000 l. and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000 l. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of 50 years. But ſince that time, this iſland has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. Their numbers at preſent are ſaid to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 ſlaves. Their commerce conſiſts in the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor reſides, whoſe employment is ſaid to be worth 5000 l. per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has ſuffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague.

ST. CHRISTOPHER's.] This iſland, commonly called by the ſailors, St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 62 deg. W. lon. and 17 deg. N. lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is 20 miles long, and ſeven broad. It has its name from the famous Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. This nation, however, abandoned it as unworthy of their attention; and in 1626, it was ſettled by the French and Engliſh conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Beſides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much ſugar as Barbadoes, and ſometimes quite as much. It is computed that this iſland contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in 61 deg. W. lon. and 17 deg. N. lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This iſland, which was formerly thought uſeleſs, has now got the ſtart of the reſt. It has one of the beſt harbours in the Weſt-Indies, and its capital St. John's, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary ſeat of the governor of the Leeward iſlands. Antigua is ſuppoſed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 ſlaves.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two ſmall iſlands, lying between St. Chriſtopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and are ſaid each to contain 5000 whites and 10,000 ſlaves. The ſoil in theſe four iſlands is pretty much alike, light and ſandy, but notwithſtanding fertile in an high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the ſugar cane.

BARBUDA.] Situated in 18 deg. N. lat. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for ſhipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in huſbandry, and raiſing freſh proviſions for the uſe of the neighbouring iſles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situated in 19 deg. N. lat. 60 miles north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is about 30 miles long, and 10 broad. This iſland is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the ſame with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themſelves to huſbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situated in 16 deg. N. lat. and in 62 W. lon. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. It got its name from being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The French have always oppoſed our ſettling here, becauſe it muſt cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadalupe. By the laſt treaty of peace, however, it was ceded in expreſs terms to the Engliſh; but we have derived little advantage from this conqueſt, the iſland being at preſent no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled their own ſettlements, have taken refuge here. The ſoil of this iſland is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than ſugar; but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt-Indies, and the iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water.

ST. VINCENT.] Situated in 13 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt lon. 50 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, 30 miles ſouth of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a ſtrong loam, the moſt proper for the raiſing of ſugar.

ſugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is leſs cultivated than formerly throughout the Weſt-Indies. It is at preſent chiefly inhabited by the Caribbeans, and many fugitives from Barbadoes and the other iſlands, who are now numerous, and have many villages where they are ſaid to live well.

GRANADA AND THE GRENADINES.] Granada is ſituated in 12 deg. north lat. and in 62 deg. weſt lon. about 30 leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New-Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is ſaid to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved that the ſoil of this iſland is extremely proper for producing ſugar, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt-Indies, of its dimenſions. A lake on the top of a hill in the middle of an iſland ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for ſhipping; and it has the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes. Its chief port, called Lewis, has a ſandy bottom, and is ſo capacious and ſafe, that 1000 veſſels from 3 to 400 ton may ride ſecure from ſtorms; and 100 ſhips of the greateſt burden may be moored in its harbour. This iſland was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which theſe handful of Caribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery. In the laſt war, when Granada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the ſmall iſlands on the north, called the Grenadines, which yield the ſame produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great-Britain by the treaty of peace.

TOBAGO.] The moſt ſoutherly of all the Britiſh iſlands or ſettlements in America (except Falkland Iſlands in the South-Seas) is ſituated in 11 deg. north lat. 120 miles ſouth of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance from the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other Weſt-India iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil, capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed in the Weſt Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal, all valuable commodities, and which will undoubtedly render this iſland of vaſt importance and immenſe benefit to Great Britain. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and creeks are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kind of ſhipping. The value and importance of this iſland appears from the expenſive and formidable armaments ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain, and theſe three laſt mentioned iſlands are now formed into one government.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Excluſive of the Weſt-India ſugar iſlands lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims ſeveral others, that are ſeated at the diſtance of ſome thouſand miles from each other, in this quarter of the globe, of which we ſhall ſpeak according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is ſituated to the eaſt of the gulph of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 53 and 59 deg. weſt lon. ſeparated from Labrador or New-Britain by the Straits of Belleiſle, and from Canada by the Bay of St. Lawrence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland we are far from reaping any ſudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the ſoil, at leaſt in thoſe parts of the iſland with which we are acquainted, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the ſea coaſt perhaps is no very remote proſpect) will afford a large ſupply for maſt, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt-India trade. But what at preſent it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fiſhery of cod, carried on upon thoſe ſhoals which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great-Britain and North-America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ 3000 ſail of ſmall craft in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of 10,000 hands; ſo that this fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery to the royal navy. This fiſhery is computed to encreaſe the national ſtock 300,000 l. a year in gold and ſilver, remitted to us for the cod we ſell in the north, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank, and the leſſer ones, which lie to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores of Newfoundland, New-Scotland, New-England, and the iſle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fiſheries are carried on upon all their coaſts, from which we may obſerve, that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or ſo barren as not to produce any thing from their ſoil, their coaſts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that ariſing from the moſt fertile ſoil.

This iſland, after various diſputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern ſhores of the iſland; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fiſh in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they ſhould not approach within three leagues of any of the coaſts belonging to England. The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated to the ſouthward of Newfoundland, were alſo ceded to the French, who ſtipulated to erect no fortifications on theſe iſlands, nor to keep more than 50 ſoldiers to enforce the police. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John; but there do not above 1000 families remain here in the winter.

CAPE BRETON.] This iſland, ſeated between Newfoundland and Nova-Scotia, is in length about 110 miles. The ſoil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louiſburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where ſix or ſeven fathoms water. Since the conqueſt of this iſland by Great-Britain in the late war, France has not one ſea port for the relief and ſhelter of her trading ſhips, either to or from the Weſt-Indies, open to them any where in America, to the northward of the river Miſſiſippi; and conſequently their whole trade in the fiſhery muſt for the future be expoſed to the Engliſh privateers from the northern colonies in the time of war; a circumſtance which may have ſome weight with that nation, in rendering them leſs forward to commence hoſtilities with Great-Britain.

ST. JOHN's.] Situated in the gulph of St. Lawrence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, has many fine rivers, and though lying near Cape-Breton and New-Scotland, has greatly the advantage of both in pleaſantneſs and fertility of ſoil. Upon the reduction of Cape-Breton, the inhabitants of this iſland, amounting to 4000, ſubmitted quietly to the Britiſh arms; and to the diſgrace of the French governor, there were found in his houſe ſeveral Engliſh ſcalps, which were brought there to market by the ſavages of New-Scotland; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This iſland was ſo well improved by the French, that it was ſtiled the granary of Canada, which it furniſhed with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] Theſe received their firſt name from their being diſcovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard, and were called the Summer Iſlands, from Sir George Sommers, who was ſhipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his paſſage to Virginia. They are ſituated, at a vaſt diſtance from any continent, in 32 deg. north lat. and in 65 deg. weſt lon. Their diſtance from the Land's end is computed near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but ſmall, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of acceſs, being, as Waller the poet, who reſided ſome time there, expreſſes it, walled in with rocks. The air of theſe iſlands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always eſteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richneſs of the vegetable productions is perfectly delightful. Though the ſoil of theſe iſlands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vines, the chief and only buſineſs of the inhabitants, who conſiſt of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light ſloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the Weſt Indies. Theſe veſſels are as remarkable for their ſwiftneſs, as the cedar of which they are built is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is ſeated at the bottom of a haven in the iſland of the ſame name, and is defended by ſeven or eight forts and 70 pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houſes, a handſome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY's, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are ſituated to the ſouth of Carolina, between 22 and 27 deg. north lat. and 73 and 81 deg. weſt lon. They extend along the coaſt of Florida quite down to the Iſle of Cuba; and are ſaid to be 500 in number, ſome of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing

nothing different from the ſoil of Carolina: all are, however, abſolutely uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles eaſt of the Floridas, though ſome others are larger and more fertile, on which the Engliſh have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulph of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spaniſh galeons ſail in their paſſage to Europe. Theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of Columbus's diſcoveries: but they were not known to the Engliſh till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his paſſage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a ſecond time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The Engliſh, obſerving the advantageous ſituation of theſe iſlands for being a check upon the French and Spaniards, attempted to ſettle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky accidents prevented this ſettlement from being of any advantage, and the Iſle of Providence became an harbour for the Buccaneers or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to ſend out captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to diſlodge the pirates, and for making a ſettlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independant company was ſtationed in the iſland. Ever ſince this laſt ſettlement theſe iſlands have been improving, tho' they advance but ſlowly. In time of war, people gain conſiderably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and Weſt-India iſlands, we ſhall now proceed along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of America, as far as the 52d deg. of ſouth lat. where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland iſlands, ſituated near the Streights of Magellan, at the utmoſt extremity of South-America. It has been generally believed, that the richeſt gold mines in Chili are carefully concealed by the Indians, as well knowing that the diſcovery of them would only excite in the Spaniards a greater thirſt for conqueſt and tyranny, and would render their own independence more precarious. King Charles II. of England conſidered the diſcovery of this coaſt of ſuch conſequence, that Sir John Narborough was purpoſely fitted out to ſurvey the Streights of Magellan, the neighbouring coaſt of Patagonia, and the Spaniſh ports in that frontier; with directions, if poſſible, to procure ſome intercourſe with the Chilian Indians, who are generally at war, or at leaſt on ill terms with the Spaniards; and to eſtabliſh a commerce and a laſting correſpondence with them. Though Sir John, through accidental cauſes, failed in this attempt, which, in appearance, promiſed ſo many advantages to this nation, his tranſactions upon that coaſt, beſides the many valuable improvements he furniſhed to geography and navigation, are rather an encouragement for further trials of this kind, than any objection againſt them. It appears by the precautions and fears of the Spaniards, that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the ſcheme he was ſent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehenſion of its conſequences. It is ſaid, that his majeſty king Charles was ſo far prepoſſeſſed with the belief of the emoluments which might redound to the public from this expedition, and was ſo eager to be informed of the event of it, that, having intelligence of Sir John Narborough's paſſing the Downs, on his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himſelf in his barge to Graveſend to meet him.

"As therefore it appears (ſays the author of Anſon's Voyage) that all our future expeditions to the South-Seas muſt run a conſiderable riſk of proving abortive, whilſt in our paſſage thither we are under the neceſſity of touching at the Portugueſe ſettlement of Brazil, (where we may certainly depend on having our ſtrength, condition, and deſigns betrayed to the Spaniards) the diſcovery of ſome place more to the ſouthward, where ſhips might refreſh, and ſupply themſelves with the neceſſary ſea-ſtock for their voyage round Cape Horn, would be an expedient that would relieve us from theſe embarraſments, and would ſurely be a matter worthy the attention of the public. Nor does this ſeem difficult to be effected; for we have already the imperfect knowledge of two places, which might, perhaps, on examination, prove extremely convenient for this purpoſe; one of them is Pepy's Iſland, in the latitude of 47, ſouth, and laid down by Dr. Halley about 80 leagues to the eaſtward of Cape Blanco, on the coaſt of Patagonia; the other is *Falkland Iſles*, in the latitude of 51 and a half, lying nearly ſouth of Pepy's Iſland."

Falkland iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1689, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps.

In the year 1764, the late lord Egmont, then firſt lord of the admiralty, revived the ſcheme of a ſettlement in the South-Seas, and commodore Byron was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Falkland iſlands in the name of his Britannic majeſty, and in his journal repreſents them as a valuable acquiſition. On the other hand, they are repreſented by capt. M'Bride, who in 1766 ſucceeded that gentleman, as the outcaſts of nature. "We found, ſays he, a maſs of iſlands and broken lands, of which the ſoil was nothing but a bog, with no better proſpect than that of barren mountains, beaten by ſtorms almoſt perpetual. Yet this is ſummer, and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, thoſe who lie but two cables length from the ſhore, muſt paſs weeks without any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-tree, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, ſheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and encreaſe as in other places. Geeſe, of a fiſhy taſte, ſnipes, foxes, ſea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and in the ſummer months, wild ſallary, and ſorrel, are the natural luxuries of theſe iſlands.

But though the ſoil be barren, and the ſeas tempeſtuous, we have happily ſucceeded in the grand object of a ſettlement here, by the diſcovery of a noble harbour, ſecured from the fury of the winds by ſurrounding mountains, and which in time of war will make us maſters of thoſe ſeas.

By our having the poſſeſſion of one good harbour here, and keeping the royal navy on a reſpectable footing, we ſhall have nothing to fear from the united force of France, Spain, and Portugal. Whoever turns his eye to the map of America, and obſerves the number of our ſettlements, and their ſituation in reſpect to the poſſeſſions of theſe powers, will conceive the impoſſibility of their trade eſcaping the vigilance of our cruiſers, pouring out from every corner of this new world. Add to this, that having hitherto attempted their colonies with ſucceſs, what may we not expect in a future war, from ſuch additional ſtrength, ſo many convenient harbours to refit, or to ſupply our fleets and armies.

PROCLAMATION,

For regulating the Ceſſions made to us in America by the laſt Treaty of Peace.

GEORGE R.

WHEREAS we have taken into our royal conſideration the extenſive and valuable acquiſitions in America, ſecured to our crown by the late definitive treaty of peace, concluded at Paris the 10th day of February laſt; and being deſirous that all our loving ſubjects, as well of our kingdoms as of our colonies in America, may avail themſelves, with all convenient ſpeed, of the great benefits and advantages, which muſt accrue therefrom to their commerce, manufactures, and navigation; we have thought fit, with the advice of our privy-council, to iſſue this our royal proclamation, hereby to publiſh and declare to all our loving ſubjects, that we have with the advice of our ſaid privy-council, granted our letters patent, under our great ſeal of Great-Britain, to erect within the countries and iſlands, ceded and confirmed to us by the ſaid treaty, four diſtinct and ſeparate governments, ſtiled and called by the names of Quebec, Eaſt-Florida, Weſt-Florida, and Grenada, and limited and bounded as follows, viz.

Firſt, The government of Quebec, bounded on the Labrador coaſt by the river St. John, and from thence by a line drawn from the head of that river through the lake St. John to the ſouth end of the lake Nipiſſim; from whence the ſaid line, croſſing the river St. Lawrence and the lake Champlain in 45 degrees north latitude, paſſes along the high lands which divide the rivers that empty themſelves into the ſaid river St. Lawrence, from thoſe which fall into the ſea; and alſo along the north coaſt of the Bay des Chaleurs, and the coaſt of the Gulph of St. Lawrence to Cape Roſieres, and from thence croſſing the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, by the weſt end of the iſland Anticoſti, terminates at the aforeſaid river of St. John.

Secondly, The government of Eaſt-Florida, bounded to the weſtward, by the gulph of Mexico and Apalachicola river; to the northward, by a line drawn from that part of the ſaid river, where the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers meet, to the ſource of St. Mary's river; and by the ſource of the ſaid river to the Atlantic ocean; and to the eaſtward and ſouthward, by the Atlantic ocean, and the Gulph of Florida, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the ſea-coaſt.

Thirdly, The government of Weſt-Florida, bounded to the ſouthward by the coaſt of Mexico, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt from the river Apalachicola to Lake Pontchartrain; to the weſtward, by the ſame lake, the lake Maurepas, and the river Miſſiſippi; to the northward, by a line drawn due eaſt from that part of the river Miſſiſippi which lies in 31 degrees north latitude, to the river Apalachicola or Chatahouchee; and to the eaſtward by the ſaid river.

Fourthly, The government of Grenada, comprehending the iſland of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the iſlands of Dominico, St. Vincent, and Tobago.

And to the end that the open and free fiſhery of our ſubjects may be extended to, and carried on upon the coaſt of Labrador, and the adjacent iſlands,

iſlands, we have thought fit, with the advice of our ſaid privy-council, to put all that coaſt, from the river St. John's to Hudſon's Streights, together with the iſlands of Anticoſti and Madelaine, and all other ſmaller iſlands lying upon the ſame coaſt, under the care and inſpection of our governor of Newfoundland.

We have alſo, with the advice of our privy-council, thought fit to annex the iſlands of St. John, and Cape Breton, or Iſle Royale, with the leſſer iſlands adjacent thereto, to our government of Nova Scotia.

We have alſo, with the advice of our privy-council aforeſaid, annexed to our province of Georgia, all the lands lying between the rivers Alatamaha and St. Mary's.

And whereas it will greatly contribute to the ſpeedy ſettling our ſaid new governments, that our loving ſubjects ſhould be informed of our paternal care for the ſecurity of the liberties and properties of thoſe, who are and ſhall become inhabitants thereof: we have thought fit to publiſh and declare, by this our proclamation, that we have, in the letters patent under our great ſeal of Great-Britain, by which the ſaid governments are conſtituted, given expreſs power and direction to our governors of our ſaid colonies reſpectively, that ſo ſoon as the ſtate and circumſtances of the ſaid colonies will admit thereof, they ſhall, with the advice and conſent of the members of our council, ſummon and call general aſſemblies within the ſaid governments reſpectively, in ſuch manner and form as is uſed and directed in thoſe colonies and provinces in America, which are under our immediate government; and we have alſo given power to the ſaid governors, with the conſent of our ſaid councils, and the repreſentatives of the people, ſo to be ſummoned as aforeſaid, to make, conſtitute, and ordain laws, ſtatutes and ordinances for the public peace, welfare, and good government of our ſaid colonies, and of the people and inhabitants thereof, as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, and under ſuch regulations and reſtrictions as are uſed in other colonies; and in the mean time, and until ſuch aſſemblies can be called as aforeſaid, all perſons inhabiting in or reſorting to our ſaid colonies, may confide in our royal protection for the enjoyment of the benefit of the laws of our realm of England; for which purpoſe we have given power under our great ſeal to the governors of our ſaid colonies reſpectively, to erect and conſtitute, with the advice of our ſaid councils reſpectively, courts of judicature and public juſtice within our ſaid colonies, for the hearing and determining all cauſes, as well criminal as civil, according to law and equity, and as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, with liberty to all perſons, who may think themſelves aggrieved by the ſentences of ſuch courts, in all civil caſes, to appeal, under the uſual limitations and reſtrictions, to us, in our privy-council.

We have alſo thought fit, with the advice of our privy-council as aforeſaid, to give unto the governors and councils of our ſaid three new colonies upon the continent, full power and authority to ſettle and agree with the inhabitants of our ſaid new colonies, or with any other perſons who ſhall reſort thereto, for ſuch lands, tenements, and hereditaments, as are now, or hereafter ſhall be in our power to diſpoſe of, and them to grant to any ſuch perſon or perſons, upon ſuch terms, and under ſuch moderate quit-rents, ſervices, and acknowledgments, as have been appointed and ſettled in our other colonies, and under ſuch other conditions, as ſhall appear to us to be neceſſary and expedient for the advantage of the grantees, and the improvement and ſettlement of our ſaid colonies.

And whereas we are deſirous, upon all occaſions, to teſtify our royal ſenſe and approbation of the conduct and bravery of the officers and ſoldiers of our armies, and to reward the ſame, we do hereby command and impower our governors of our ſaid three new colonies, and all other our governors of our ſeveral provinces on the continent of North-America, to grant, without fee or reward, to ſuch reduced officers as have ſerved in North America during the late war; and to ſuch private ſoldiers as have been or ſhall be diſbanded in America, and are actually reſiding there, and ſhall perſonally apply for the ſame, the following quantities of lands, ſubject, at the expiration of ten years, to the ſame quit-rents as other lands are ſubject to in the province within which they are granted, as alſo ſubject to the ſame conditions of cultivation and improvement, viz.

To every perſon having the rank of a field officer, 5000 acres.

To every captain, 3000 acres.

To every ſubaltern or ſtaff-officer, 2000 acres.

To every non-commiſſion officer, 200 acres.

To every private man, 50 acres.

We do likewiſe authoriſe and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our ſaid colonies upon the continent of North-America, to grant the like quantities of land, and upon the ſame conditions, to ſuch reduced officers of the royal navy of the like rank, as ſerved on board our ſhips of war in North-America, at the times of the reduction of Louiſbourg and Quebec, in the late war, and who ſhall perſonally apply to our reſpective governors for ſuch grants.

And whereas it is juſt and reaſonable, and eſſential to our intereſt, and the ſecurity of our colonies, that the ſeveral nations or tribes of Indians, with whom we are connected, and who live under our protection, ſhould not be moleſted or diſturbed in the poſſeſſion of ſuch parts of our dominions and territories as not having been ceded to or purchaſed by us, are reſerved to them or any of them as their hunting-grounds; we do therefore, with the advice of our privy-council, declare it to be our royal will and pleaſure, that no governor or commander in chief in any of our colonies of Quebec, Eaſt-Florida, or Weſt-Florida, do preſume, upon any pretence whatever, to grant warrants of ſurvey, or paſs any patents for lands beyond the bounds of their reſpective governments, as deſcribed in their commiſſions; as alſo that no governor or commander in chief in any of our other colonies or plantations in America, do preſume for the preſent, and until our further pleaſure be known, to grant warrants of ſurvey, or paſs patents for any lands beyond the heads or ſources of any of the rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean from the weſt and north weſt; or upon any lands whatever, which not having been ceded to, or purchaſed by us, as aforeſaid, are reſerved to the ſaid Indians or any of them.

And we do further declare it to be our royal will and pleaſure, for the preſent as aforeſaid, to reſerve under our ſovereignty, protection, and dominion, for the uſe of the ſaid Indians, all the lands and territories not included within the limits of our ſaid three new governments, or within the limits of the territory granted to the Hudſon's-Bay company, as alſo all the lands and territories lying to the weſtward of the ſources of the rivers which fall into the ſea from the weſt and north-weſt as aforeſaid; and we do hereby ſtrictly forbid, on pain of our diſpleaſure, all our loving ſubjects from making any purchaſes or ſettlements whatever

or taking poſſeſſion of any of the lands above reſerved, without our ſpecial leave and licence for that purpoſe firſt obtained.

And we do further ſtrictly enjoin and require all perſons whatever, who have either wilfully or inadvertently ſeated themſelves upon any lands within the countries above deſcribed, or upon any other lands, which not having been ceded to or purchaſed by us, are ſtill reſerved to the ſaid Indians as aforeſaid, forthwith to remove themſelves from ſuch ſettlements.

And whereas great frauds and abuſes have been committed in the purchaſing lands of the Indians, to the great prejudice of our intereſts, and to the great diſſatisfaction of the ſaid Indians; in order therefore to prevent ſuch irregularities for the future, and to the end that the Indians may be convinced of our juſtice and determined reſolution to remove all reaſonable cauſe of diſcontent, we do, with the advice of our privy-council, ſtrictly enjoin and require, that no private perſon do preſume to make any purchaſe from the ſaid Indians of any lands reſerved to the ſaid Indians within thoſe parts of our colonies, where we have thought proper to allow ſettlement; but that if at any time any of the ſaid Indians ſhould be inclined to diſpoſe of the ſaid lands, the ſame only ſhould be purchaſed only for us, in our name, at ſome public meeting or aſſembly of the ſaid Indians, to be held for that purpoſe by the governor or commander in chief of our colony reſpectively, within which they ſhall lie; and in caſe they ſhould lie within the limits of any proprietary government, they ſhall be purchaſed only for the uſe and in the name of ſuch proprietors, conformable to ſuch directions and inſtructions as we or they ſhall think proper to give for that purpoſe. And we do, by the advice of our privy-council, declare and enjoin, that the trade with the ſaid Indians ſhall be free and open to all our ſubjects whatever; provided that every perſon, who may incline to trade with the ſaid Indians, do take out a licence for carrying on ſuch a trade, from the governor or commander in chief of any of our colonies reſpectively, where ſuch perſon ſhall reſide, and alſo give ſecurity to obſerve ſuch regulations as we ſhall at any time think fit, by ourſelves or by our commiſſaries, to be appointed for this purpoſe, to direct and appoint for the benefit of the ſaid trade: And we do hereby authoriſe, enjoin, and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our colonies, reſpectively, as well as thoſe under our immediate government, as thoſe under the government and direction of proprietaries, to grant ſuch licences without fee or reward; taking eſpecial care to inſert therein a condition that ſuch licence ſhall be void, and the ſecurity forfeited, in caſe the perſon, to whom the ſame is granted, ſhall refuſe or neglect to obſerve ſuch regulations as we ſhall think proper to preſcribe as aforeſaid.

And we do further expreſsly enjoin and require all officers whatever, as well military as thoſe employed in the management and direction of Indian affairs within the territories reſerved, as aforeſaid, for the uſe of the ſaid Indians, to ſeize and apprehend all perſons whatever, who, ſtanding charged with treaſons, miſpriſions of treaſons, murders, or other felonies and miſdemeanours, ſhall fly from juſtice and take refuge in the ſaid territory, and to ſend them under a proper guard to the colony where the crime was committed of which they ſtand accuſed, in order to take their trial for the ſame.

Given at our court in St. James's, the 7th day of October, 1763, in the third year of our reign.

GOD Save the KING.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA;

NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2000, Breadth 1600	between	94 and 126 W. longitude. 23 and 43 N. latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the north; by Louiſiana, on the eaſt; by old Mexico, and the Pacific ocean, on the ſouth; and by the ſame ocean, on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
North-eaſt diviſion	New Mexico Proper —	Santa Fe, W. lon. 104. N. lat. 36.
South-eaſt diviſion	Apacheira	— St. Antonio.
South diviſion	Sonora	— Tuape.
Weſt diviſion	California, a peninſula	St. Juan.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Theſe countries lying for the moſt part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a ſoil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California however they experience great heats in the ſummer, particularly towards the ſea-coaſt; but in the inland country, the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural hiſtory of theſe countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themſelves know little of the matter, and the little they know, they are unwilling to communicate. Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who here at leaſt ſtill preſerve their independence; they are jealous of diſcovering the natural advantages of theſe countries, which might be an inducement to the other nations of Europe, to form ſettlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California, are extremely beautiful and pleaſant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, interſected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, ſome producing excellent fruit. With reſpect to the value of the gold mines in thoſe countries, nothing poſitive can be aſſerted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions, to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, ſettling on the roſe leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the ſweetneſs of refined ſugar, without its whiteneſs. There is alſo another very ſingular natural production. In the heart of the country there are plains of ſalt, quite firm and clear as chryſtal, which, conſidering the vaſt quantities of fiſh found on its coaſts, might render it an invaluable acquiſition to any induſtrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION AND COMMERCE.] The Spaniſh ſettlements here are comparatively weak; though they are encreaſing every day in proportion as new mines are diſcovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spaniſh miſſionaries have in many places brought over to Chriſtianity, to a civilized life, to raiſe corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was diſcovered by Cortez, the great conqueror

conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator Sir Francis Drake took poſſeſſion of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief in the whole country. This title however the government of Great-Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably ſituated for trade, and on its coaſt has a pearl fiſhery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from thoſe of Old Mexico.

OLD MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2000	between	83 and 110 weſt longitude.
Breadth 600		8 and 30 north latitude.

Boundaries.] Bounded by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north; by the gulph of Mexico, on the north-eaſt; by Terra Firma, on the ſouth-eaſt; and by the Pacific ocean, on the ſouth-weſt, containing three audiences, viz.

Audiences.	Chief towns.	
1. Galicia or Guadalajarra	Guadalajarra.	
2. Mexico Proper	Mexico,	W. lon. 102-35. N. lat. 20.
	Acapulco.	
	Vera Cruz.	
3. Guatimala	Guatimala.	

Bays.] On the north-ſea are the gulphs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific ocean, or South-Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

Capes.] Theſe are cape Sardo, cape St. Martin, cape Cornducedo, cape Catoche, cape Honduras, cape Cameron, and cape Gracias Dios, in the North-Sea.

Cape Marques, cape Spirito Sancto, cape Corientes, cape Gallero, cape Blanco, cape Burica, cape Prucreos, and cape Mala, in the South-Sea.

Winds.] In the gulph of Mexico, and the adjacent ſeas, there are ſtrong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a diſtance from land within the tropics. Near the coaſt in the South-Sea, they have their periodical winds, viz. Monſoons, and ſea and land breezes, as in Aſia.

Soil and climate.] Mexico lying for the moſt part within the torrid zone, is exceſſively hot, and on the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſons, it is likewiſe extremely unwholeſome. The inland country, however, aſſumes a better aſpect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the weſtern ſide the land is not ſo low, as on the eaſtern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The ſoil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuſe any ſort of grain were the induſtry of the inhabitants to correſpond with their natural advantages.

Produce.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are here in the greateſt plenty and

perfection. Mexico produces alſo a prodigious quantity of ſugar, eſpecially towards the gulph of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, ſo that here are more ſugar mills than in any other part of Spaniſh America. But what is conſidered as the chief glory of this country, and what firſt induced the Spaniards to form ſettlements upon it, are the mines of gold and ſilver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, confining upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in ſeveral parts, but in none ſo much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the moſt barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends in one reſpect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and ſilver mines depends on the ſame principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of ſeveral heterogeneous ſubſtances, mixed with the precious metals, it is broke into ſmall pieces by a mill, and afterwards waſhed, by which means it is diſengaged from the earth, and other ſoft bodies which clung to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all ſubſtances, has the ſtrongeſt attraction for gold, and likewiſe a ſtronger attraction for ſilver, than the other ſubſtances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and ſilver are firſt ſeparated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by ſtraining and evaporation, they are diſunited from the mercury itſelf. Of the gold and ſilver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been ſaid. Thoſe who have enquired moſt into this ſubject, compute the revenues of Mexico at 24 millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spaniſh America, ſupply the whole world with ſilver. The other articles next in importance to gold and ſilver, are the cochineal and cocoa. After much diſpute concerning the nature of the former, it ſeems at laſt agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the ſpecies of the gall inſects. It adheres to the plant called Opuntia, and ſucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimſon colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which conſiſts in dying all ſorts of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon and purple. It is alſo uſed in medicine as a ſudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no leſs than nine hundred thouſand pounds weight of this commodity, to anſwer the purpoſes of medicine and dying. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next conſiderable article in the natural hiſtory and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling ſize which bears a pod about the ſize and ſhape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spaniſh commerce in this article is immenſe; and ſuch is the internal conſumption, as well as external call for it, that a ſmall garden of cocoa's is ſaid to produce to the owner, 20,000 crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholeſome, nutricious, and ſuitable to the climate. This country likewiſe produces ſilk, but not in ſuch abundance as to make any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightneſs is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT AND MANNERS. We ſhall place theſe heads under one point of view, becauſe, the reader will ſoon be ſenſible, they are very nearly connected. We have already deſcribed the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conqueſt of that country by the Spaniards. The preſent inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain,

Spain, or they are creoles, i. e. natives of Spaniſh America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the ſame character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a ſtill more conſiderable portion of pride; for they conſider themſelves as entitled to every high diſtinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are deſcended, without that courage, firmneſs, and patience, which makes the praiſe-worthy part of the Spaniſh character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greateſt part of their lives to loitering, and inactive pleaſures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with great parade, and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and ſpecious inſignificance. From idleneſs and conſtitution their whole buſineſs is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of conſequence are not at all diſtinguiſhed for their chaſtity or domeſtic virtues. The Indians, who notwithſtanding the devaſtations of the firſt invaders, remain in great numbers, are become by continual oppreſſion and indignity, a dejected timorous and miſerable race of mortals. The blacks here, like all thoſe in other parts of the world, are ſtubborn, hardy, and well adapted for the groſs ſlavery they endure.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greateſt part of Spaniſh America. The civil government is adminiſtered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a reſemblance to the parliaments in France. In theſe courts the viceroy of the king of Spain preſides. His employment is the greateſt truſt and power, which his Catholic majeſty has in his diſpoſal, and is perhaps the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. The greatneſs of the viceroy's office is diminiſhed by the ſhortneſs of its duration. For, as jealouſy is the leading feature of Spaniſh politicks, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt may have a good effect in ſecuring the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy conſequences to the miſerable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that prieſts, monks and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spaniſh America. It is impoſſible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to eccleſiaſtics in any part of the world. The people are ſuperſtitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with ſuch materials to work upon, it is not remarkable, that the church ſhould enjoy one fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom. It is more ſurpriſing, that it has not a half.

COMMERCE, CITIES, AND SHIPPING. The trade of Mexico conſiſts of three great branches, which extends over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by la Vera Cruz, ſituated on the gulph of Mexico or North-Sea; with the Eaſt Indies, by Acapulco on the South Sea, and with South-America, by the ſame port. Theſe two ſea-ports Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well ſituated for the commercial purpoſes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former, that Mexico pours her wealth over all the whole world; and receives in return the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries, which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themſelves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, conſiſting of three men of war, as a convoy,

and 14 large merchant ſhips, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo conſiſts of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who ſend out little more than wine and oil. The profit of theſe, with the freight and commiſſion to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, and other commodities for Europe. Sometimes in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz, they ſail to the Havanna, in the iſle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy neceſſary for their ſafety, they ſteer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the ſea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spaniſh empire in America and the Eaſt Indies. About the month of December, the great galeon, attended by a large ſhip as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines, and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of theſe ſhips, for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewiſe carries goods, conſiſt of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the eaſt. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima the capital of Peru comes in, and is not computed to bring leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchaſe of the galeons cargoes. Several other ſhips from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the ſame occaſion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, laſts 30 days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with ſilver and ſuch European goods as have been thought neceſſary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but ſmall gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial ſtates, to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the Flota, ſo, the Spaniſh inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the ſame indolence which ruined their European anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the galeon. Notwithſtanding what has been ſaid of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be conſidered as the center of commerce in this part of the world. For here the principal merchants reſide, and the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negotiated. The Eaſt India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all paſs through this city. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is depoſited, and here is wrought all thoſe utenſils and ornaments in plate which is every year ſent into Europe. The city itſelf breathes the air of the higheſt magnificence, and according to the beſt account contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

Spaniſh Dominions in SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, or Caſtilla del Oro.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1400	between	60 and 82 W. longitude.
Breadth	700		the equator and 12 N. lat.

F696


Longitude West from London
110
100
90
80
20
10
0
10
20
30
40
GULF OF
MEXICO
Mexico
Bay of
Campeche
La Rocca Partida
MEXICO OR NEW SPAIN
Acapulco
Gulf of Honduras
JAMAICA
Caribbean
C. Cameron
C. Gratios Dios
Cartha gena
Portobello
Capt. Clippertons I.
C. Blanco
Gulf of Sdnta
Panama
P. Mala
GREAT SOUTH
Equinoctial Line
GALLIPAGO
ISLANDS
C. St Francisco
Peru
Quito
Guayaquil
C. Blanco
Payta
SEA
Mendane Land
SOLOMONS
I. de Jesus
Malaita I.
I. of Isabella
I. de Guadal canal
St Christopher
James I.
ISLANDS
OR
PACIFIC
OCEAN
Truxillo
Callao
Lima
Arica
Ilacca
Mt. S. Gerve
Copiapo
IS. Ambrose
IS. Philip
Guasco
Coquimbo
I. Juan Fernandes
P. Valparaiso
Davis Land
la Concepcion
Imperial
Baldivia
Chiloe I.
Chonos or
Narborough I.
Kings Bay
Yorke Islands
C. Victory
Straits
P. S. F. Drake
C. Horn
SOUTH
AMERICA
Hours West from London
VIII
VI


60
50
40
30
20
10
CARIBBEE ISLANDS
Tropic of Cancer
AFRICA
C. Blanco
Senega R.
CAPE VERD ISLANDS
S. Jago
C. Verd
Gambia
R. Grande
Sierra de Leone
Virgins Ilands
Antego
Dominica
Martinico
St. Vincent
Barbadoes
Tobago
I. de la Trinidad
R. Oronoque
Surinam
Cayenne
C. Orange
FIRMA GUIANA
North Cape
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
Fort Agye
Para
S. Louis de Maragnan
S. Laurenzo
Siara
I. Fernando de Loronho
Rio Grande
C. S. Roque
Paraiba
Olinda de Pernambuc
C. St. Augustin
Rio St. Francisco
R. Real
Serenipe
S. Salvador
B. de Todos Santos
Porto
BRASIL
TAPUYERS
TUPIYAMBOYS
Porto Seguro
Los Ambrovios
R. Doce
Spirito Santo
C. St. Thome
C. Frio
Trinidad I.
Rio de Janeiro
S. Vincent
Canarea
St. Katherine
Tropic of Capricorn
PARAGUAY
PARANA
GUAIRA
LA PLATA
Assumption
R. Grande
S. Salvador
C. S. Mary
Buenos Ayres
C. St. Antonio
C. S. Andrero
B. Sirfuenda
Los Leons
Camerones
Falkland Sound
Falkland I.
Roche I.
Straits
Meridian of London
IV
II
O

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the north ſea (part of the Atlantic ocean) on the north; by the ſame ſea and Surinam, on the eaſt; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the ſouth; and the Pacific ocean and New Spain, on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
The north diviſion contains the provinces of	1. Terra-firma Proper, or Darien	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. lon. 81-52 N. lat. 8-50
	2. Carthagena	Carthagena
	3. St. Martha	St. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela	Venezuela
	6. Comana	Comana
	7. New Andaluſia, or Paria	St. Thomas
The ſouth diviſion contains the provinces of	1. New Granada	Santa Fé de Bagota
	2. Popayan	Popayan.

BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Iſthmus of Darien, or Terra-firma proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the north, to Panama in the South-Sea, or rather a little weſt of theſe two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America, and here the Iſthmus or Neck of land is only 60 miles over.

The principal bays in Terra-firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's in the South-Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulph of Darien, Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulph of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulph of Trieſto, the bay of Guaira, the bay of Curiaco, and the gulph of Paria or Andaluſia, in the north ſea.

The chief capes are, Samblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points; and Cape Naſſau: all on the north ſhore of Terra-firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern diviſions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmeſt day in Paris, is continual at Carthagena; the exceſſive heats raiſe the vapour of the ſea, which is precipitated in ſuch rains as ſeem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country therefore, is almoſt continually flooded; and this, together with the exceſſive heat, ſo impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholeſome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The ſoil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impoſſible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This however only applies to the inland country, for the coaſts are generally barren ſand, and uncapable of bearing any ſpecies of grain. The trees, moſt remarkable for their dimenſions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balſam tree. The manzanillo tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit reſembling an apple, but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtile poiſon, againſt which common oil is found to be the beſt antidote. The malignity of this tree is ſuch, that

if

if a perſon only ſleeps under it, he finds his body all ſwelled, and racked with the ſevereſt tortures. The beaſts from inſtinct always avoid it. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a ſpecies of willow, and contains a kernel reſembling an almond, but leſs white, and extremely better. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never failing remedy for the bite of the moſt venomous vipers and ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold in this country, which are now in a great meaſure exhauſted. The ſilver, iron, and copper mines, have been ſince opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the ſouthern parts, it is therefore unneceſſary to repeat them hereafter. Among thoſe peculiar to this country, the moſt remarkable is the ſloth, or as it is called by way of deriſion, the Swift Peter. It bears a reſemblance to an ordinary monkey in ſhape and ſize, but is of a moſt wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its ſkin all over corrugated. He ſtands in no need of either chain or hutch, never ſtirring unleſs compelled by hunger; and he is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch a plaintive, and at the ſame time, ſo diſagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and diſguſt. In this cry conſiſts the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the firſt hoſtile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with diſguſtful howlings, ſo that his purſuer flies much more ſpeedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noiſe. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he aſcends with a world of uneaſineſs, moving, and crying, and ſtopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to ſave himſelf ſuch another troubleſome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himſelf in a bunch, and with a ſhriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in theſe countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at leaſt they chatter, and make a frightful noiſe, throwing things at him: they hang themſelves by the tail, on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes; but where two or three people are together they uſually ſcamper away.

NATIVES.] Beſides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general deſcription, page 613, there is another ſpecies of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a ſmaller ſtature than the ordinary Indians. Their diſpoſitions too are more ſoft and effeminate; but what principally diſtinguiſhes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the ſun, ſee beſt by moon-light, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.] We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from thoſe of Mexico. To what we have obſerved therefore with regard to that country, it is only neceſſary to add that the original inhabitants of Spain are variouſly intermixed with the negroes and Indians. Theſe intermixtures

termixtures form various gradations, which are carefully diſtinguiſhed from each other, becauſe every perſon expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater ſhare of the Spaniſh blood runs in his veins. The firſt diſtinction, ariſing from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to theſe are the Tercerones, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with theſe and the whites, ariſe the Quarterones, who, though ſtill nearer the former, are diſgraced with a tint of negro blood. But the produce of theſe and the whites, are the Quinterones, which is very remarkable, are not to be diſtinguiſhed from the real Spaniards, but by being of a ſtill fairer complexion. The ſame gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; and beſides theſe, there are a thouſand others, hardly diſtinguiſhable by the natives themſelves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the moſt conſiderable cities in Spaniſh America; and each containing ſeveral thouſand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian and European commodities. Among the natural merchandiſe of Terra Firma, the pearls found in the coaſt, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the leaſt conſiderable. An immenſe number of negro ſlaves are employed in fiſhing for theſe, and have arrived at wonderful dexterity at this occupation. They are ſometimes however devoured by fiſh, particularly the ſharks, while they dive to the bottom, or cruſhed againſt the ſhelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the ſame footing with that of Mexico.

PERU.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1800	between	the equator and 25 ſouth latitude.
Breadth 500		60 and 81 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the north; by the mountains, or Cordeleiria's des Andes, eaſt; by Chili, ſouth; and by the Pacific ocean, weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The north diviſion	Quito — —	Quito Payta
The middle diviſion	Lima, or Los Reyes	Lima, 77-30 W. lon. 12-15 S. lat. Cuſco, and Callao.
The ſouth diviſion	Los Charcos —	Potoſi Porco.

SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only ſea which borders on Peru is the Pacific ocean or South-Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Coſma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao, the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] There is a river whoſe waters are as red as blood. The rivers Granda, or Cagdalena, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plata, riſe in the Andes.

A great many other rivers riſe in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. lat.

PETRIFIED WATERS.] There are ſome waters, which, in their courſe, turn into ſtone; and fountains of liquid matter, called Coppey, reſembling pitch and tar, and uſed by ſeamen for the ſame purpoſe.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet, having on one ſide the South Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not ſo ſtifled with heat, as the other tropical countries. The ſky too, which is generally cloudy, ſhields them from the direct rays of the ſun; but what is extremely ſingular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is ſufficiently ſupplied by a ſoft kindly dew, which falls regularly every night on the ground, and ſo refreſhes the plants and graſs, as to produce in many places the greateſt fertility. Along the ſea coaſt Peru is generally a dry barren ſand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS.] There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces: but the old mines are conſtantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns ſhift with the mines. That of Potoſi, when the ſilver there was found at the eaſieſt expence, (for now having gone ſo deep, it is not ſo eaſily brought up) contained 90,000 ſouls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were ſix to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no leſs remarkable for its fineneſs, than for the animals on which it grows; theſe they call Lamas and Vicunnas. The Lama has a ſmall head, in ſome meaſure reſembling that of a horſe and ſheep at the ſame time. It is about the ſize of a ſtag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it ſpits a kind of venomous juice, which enflames the part it falls on. The fleſh of the Lama is agreeable and ſalutary, and the animal is not only uſeful in affording wool and food, but alſo as a beaſt of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the ſteepeſt mountains with a burden of 60 or 70 lb. It feeds very ſparingly, and never drinks. The Vicunna is ſmaller and ſwifter than the Lama, and produces wool ſtill finer in quality. In the Vicunna too is found the Bezoar ſtones, regarded as a ſpecific againſt poiſons. The next great article in their produce and commerce is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jeſuits bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The beſt bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it, is about the ſize of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit, reſembling the almond. But it is only the bark, which has theſe excellent qualities which render it ſo uſeful in intermitting fevers, and other diſorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greateſt abundance in the vale of Arica, a diſtrict in the ſouthern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewiſe the only part of Spaniſh America,

rica, which produces quickſilver, an article of immenſe value, conſidering the various purpoſes to which it is applied, and eſpecially the purification of gold and ſilver. The principal mine of this ſingular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, where it is found in a whitiſh maſs reſembling brick ill burned. This ſubſtance is volatiliſed by fire, and received in ſteam by a combination of glaſs veſſels, where it condenſes by means of a little water at the bottom of each veſſel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join theſe articles here becauſe of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we ſhall deſcribe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spaniſh empire; its ſituation in the middle of a ſpacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the moſt proper for a city, which he expected would preſerve his memory. It is ſo well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like thoſe of London, command a ſtream, each for his own uſe. There are many very magnificent ſtructures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houſes in general are built of ſlight materials, the equality of the climate and want of rain, rendering ſtone houſes unneceſſary; and beſides it is found, that theſe are more apt to ſuffer by ſhocks of the earth which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the ſea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a ſixth part. One remarkable fact is ſufficient to demonſtrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, cauſed the ſtreets to be paved with ingots of ſilver, amounting to ſeventeen millions ſterling. All travellers ſpeak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could juſtify theſe accounts is the immenſe richneſs and extenſive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be ſaid to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the product of the ſouthern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for ſuch articles as the inhabitants of Peru ſtand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the Eaſt-Indies, land at the ſame harbour, and the commodities of Aſia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchaſe on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouſes, knowing that they muſt ſoon find an outlet for them, ſince by one channel or other they have a communication with almoſt every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the ſituation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not ſufficient to compenſate for one diſaſter, which always threatens, and has ſometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a moſt tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demoliſhed Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any deſtruction more terrible or perfect, not more than one of 3000 inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the moſt ſingular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houſes in the utmoſt

terror and confuſion; the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its boſom, and immediately all was ſilent; but the ſame wave which deſtroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man ſtood, into which he threw himſelf and was ſaved. Cuſco, the antient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a diſtance from the ſea, it has been long on the decline. But it is ſtill a very conſiderable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have alſo both here and in Quito, which ſhall be mentioned directly, a particular taſte for painting, and their productions in this way, ſome of which have been admired in Italy, are diſperſed over all South-America. Quito is next to Lima in populouſneſs, if not ſuperior to it. It is like Cuſco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply the conſumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS AND GOVERNMENT. It would be in vain to pretend to ſay any thing deciſive with regard to the number of inhabitants in Peru. The Spaniards themſelves are remarkably ſilent on this head. It has been gueſſed by ſome writers, that in all Spaniſh America, there are about three millions of Spaniards and creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any reſpect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole of the Spaniſh dominions. Pride and lazineſs are the two predominant paſſions. It is agreed on by the moſt authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The creoles, and all the other deſcendants of the Spaniards, according to the above diſtinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Caſtilian could not think of but with deteſtation. This no doubt in part ariſes from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spaniſh pride has made the greateſt deſcents, and many of the firſt nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy reſides, whoſe authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has been lately detached from it. The viceroy is as abſolute as the king of Spain, but as his territories are ſo extenſive, it is neceſſary that he ſhould part with a ſhare of his authority to the ſeveral audiencies or courts eſtabliſhed over the kingdom. There is a treaſury court eſtabliſhed at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

CHILI.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1200	between	25 and 45 ſouth latitude.
Breadth	500		65 and 85 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru on the north; by La Plata on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by the Pacific ocean on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
On the weſt ſide of the Andes	Chili Proper	St. Jago, W. lon. 77. S. lat. 34. Baldivia. Imperial.
On the eaſt ſide of the Andes	Cuyo, or Cutio	St. John de Frontieræ.

LAKES.] The principal lakes are thoſe of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Beſides which, they have ſeveral ſalt-water lakes, that have a communication with the ſea part of the year. In ſtormy weather the ſea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fiſh; but in the hot ſeaſon the water congeals, leaving a cruſt of fine white ſalt a foot thick.

BAYS, SEAS, AND HARBOURS.] The only ſea that borders upon Chili, is that of the Pacific ocean on the weſt.

The principal bays or harbours are Copiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valpariſo, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewers-haven, and Caſtro.

CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Theſe are not remarkably different from the ſame in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with reſpect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all ſpecies of grain, of which a conſiderable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the ſame with thoſe of Peru, and they have gold almoſt in every river.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are ſtill in a great meaſure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preſervation from the Spaniſh yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition, with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are not ſuppoſed to be thrice that number.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and ſome parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn ſufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raiſed in no other part of the South Seas, hides, tallow, and ſalted proviſions; and receive in return the commodities of Europe, and the Eaſt Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY, or LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1500	between	12 and 37 ſouth lat.
Breadth 1000		50 and 75 weſt long.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia, on the north; by Braſil, eaſt; by Patagonia, on the ſouth; and by Peru and Chili, weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Eaſt diviſion contains	Paraguay —	Aſſumption
	Parana —	St. Anne
	Guaira —	Cividad Real
	Uragua —	Los Reyes
South diviſion	Tucuman —	St. Jago
	Rio de la Plata	Buenos Ayres, W. lon. 57. 54. S. lat. 34-35.

Bays and lakes.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which ſtands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which is 100 miles long.

Rivers.] This country, beſides an infinite number of ſmall rivers, is watered by three principal ones, which united near the ſea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their receſs, leave them enriched with a ſlime, that produces the greateſt plenty of whatever is committed to it.

Air, soil and produce.] This vaſt tract is far from being wholly ſubdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, interrupted by not the leaſt hill for ſeveral hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb, called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich paſtures, in which are bred ſuch herds of cattle, that it is ſaid the hides of the beaſts are all that is properly bought, the carcaſe being in a manner given into the bargain. A horſe ſome time ago might be bought for a dollar, and the uſual price for a beaſt choſen out of a herd of 2 or 300, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is deſtitute of woods. The air is remarkably ſweet and ſerene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholeſome.

First settlement, chief city and commerce.] The Spaniards firſt diſcovered this country, by ſailing up the river La Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, ſo called on account of the excellence of the air, on the ſouth ſide of the river, 50 leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is ſeven leagues broad. This is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the ſouthward of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spaniſh America; two, or at moſt three, regiſter ſhips, make the whole of their regular intercourſe with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, conſiſting chiefly of the gold and ſilver of Chili and Peru, ſugar and hides. Thoſe who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portugueſe, who keep magazines for that purpoſe, in ſuch parts of Braſil as lie near this country. Since the Engliſh have got a footing near this coaſt by their new ſettlement of port Egmont in

in the Falkland iſles, we may ſuppoſe they will make ſome attempts for a ſhare of this profitable commerce. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are ſo much the ſame with thoſe of the reſt of the Spaniſh colonies in South America, that nothing further can be ſaid on thoſe articles.

But we cannot quit this country without ſaying ſomething of that extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth, which the Jeſuits have erected in the interior parts, and of which theſe crafty prieſts have endeavoured to keep all ſtrangers in the dark.

About the middle of laſt century thoſe fathers repreſented to the court of Spain, that their want of ſucceſs in their miſſions, was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in the Indians, wherever they came. They inſinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the goſpel might, by their labours, have been extended into the moſt unknown parts of America; and that all thoſe countries might be ſubdued to his Catholic majeſty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonſtrance met with ſucceſs; the ſphere of their labours was marked out; an uncontrouled liberty was given to the Jeſuits within theſe limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to ſuffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without licenſe from the fathers. They on their part agreed, to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to ſend a certain number to the king's works whenever they ſhould be demanded, and the miſſions ſhould become populous enough to ſupply them.

On theſe terms the Jeſuits gladly entered upon the ſcene of action, and opened their ſpiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 50 wandering families, whom they perſuaded to ſettle; and they united them into a little townſhip. This was the ſlight foundation upon which they built a ſuperſtructure, which has amazed the world, and added ſo much power, at the ſame time that it has brought on ſo much envy and jealouſy, to their ſociety. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with ſuch indefatigable pains, and with ſuch maſterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the moſt ſavage nations; fixed the moſt rambling, and ſubdued thoſe to their government, who had long diſdained to ſubmit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portugueſe. They prevailed upon thouſands of various diſperſed tribes to embrace their religion, and theſe ſoon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with preciſion all the ſteps which were taken in the accompliſhment of ſo extraordinary a conqueſt over the bodies and minds of ſo many people. The Jeſuits left nothing undone that could conduce to their remaining in this ſubjection, or that could tend to encreaſe their number to the degrees requiſite for a well ordered and potent ſociety; and it is ſaid that above 340,000 families, ſeveral years ago, were ſubject to the Jeſuits, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or conſtraint: That the Indians were inſtructed in the military art with the moſt exact diſcipline, and could raiſe 60,000 men well armed: That they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exerciſed manufactures; ſome even aſpired to the elegant

arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of theſe miſſions, except their contentment under it. Some writers however have treated the character of theſe Jeſuits with great ſeverity, accuſing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to ſuch an exceſs, as to cauſe even the magiſtrates, who are always choſen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with ſtripes, and to ſuffer perſons of the higheſt diſtinction, within their juriſdictions, to kiſs the hem of their garments, as the greateſt honour. The prieſts themſelves poſſeſs large property, all manufactures are theirs, the natural produce of the country is brought to them, and the treaſures annually remitted to the ſuperior of the order, ſeem to evince that zeal for religion is not the only motive of their forming theſe miſſions. The fathers will not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meſtizos, or even Indians, to come within their miſſions in Paraguay. Some years ago, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal, the Jeſuits refuſed to comply with this diviſion, or to ſuffer themſelves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own conſent. And we are informed by the authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but, notwithſtanding the exactneſs of their diſcipline, they were eaſily, and with a conſiderable ſlaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were ſent to quell them.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The iſland of Cuba is ſituated between 19 and 23 deg. north lat. and between 74 and 87 deg. weſt lon. 100 miles to the ſouth of cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills run through the middle of the iſland from eaſt to weſt, but the land near the ſea is in general level and flooded in the rainy ſeaſon, when the ſun is vertical. This noble iſland is ſuppoſed to have the beſt ſoil, for ſo large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the Weſt Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other ſpices, caſſia, fiſtula, muſtic and aloes. It alſo produces tobacco and ſugar, but from the want of hands, and the lazineſs of the Spaniards, not in ſuch quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the ſame cauſe that this large iſland does not produce, including all its commodities, ſo much for exportation as our ſmall iſland of Antigua.

The courſe of the rivers is too ſhort to be of any conſequence, but there are ſeveral good harbours in the iſland, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, ſtrongly ſituated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great ſtrength and importance, containing about 2000 houſes, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken however, by the courage and perſeverance of the Engliſh troops in the laſt war, but reſtored in the 63d article of the treaty of peace. Beſides theſe, there is likewiſe Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a conſiderable town 30 miles eaſt of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, or St. DOMINGO.] This iſland was at firſt poſſeſſed by the Spaniards alone, but by far the moſt conſiderable part is now

now in the hands of the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original poſſeſſors, and ſtill continue to have a ſhare in it, Hiſpaniola is commonly regarded as a Spaniſh iſland.

It is ſituated between the 17th and 21ſt deg. north lat. and the 67th and 74th of weſt lon. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. The face of the country preſents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers, and the ſoil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and caſſava root. The European cattle are ſo multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the moſt barren parts of the rocks, they diſcovered formerly ſilver and gold. The mines however are not worked now. The north-weſt parts, which are in the poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vaſt abundance. This indeed is the beſt and moſt fruitful part, of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The moſt antient town in this iſland, and in all the new world, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole iſland is ſometimes named, eſpecially by the French. It is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spaniſh towns, by a mixture of Europeans, creoles, mulattos, muſtees, and negroes.

The French towns are, cape St. Francois, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is ſaid to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of ſize, is a good port, a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of the French government in that iſland. They have two other towns conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and port Louis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above-mentioned places, are not leſs in value than 1,200,000 l. They likewiſe carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spaniſh dollars.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between 64 and 67 deg. weſt lon. and in 18 deg. north lat. lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The ſoil is beautifully diverſified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the ſame fruits as the other iſlands. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers; but the iſland is unhealthful in the rainy ſeaſons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards ſettled here, but there is no longer any conſiderable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, ſtands in a little iſland on the north ſide of the main iſland, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief iſland by a cauſey, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almoſt inacceſſible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than moſt of the Spaniſh towns, becauſe it is the center of the contraband trade carried on by the Engliſh and French with the king of Spain's ſubjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the eaſt end of Porto Rico, ar extremely ſmall.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between 59 and 62 deg. weſt lon. and in 10 deg. north lat. lies between the iſland of Tobago and the Spaniſh Main, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtreights of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthful, but fruitful ſoil, producing ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and ſome cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the iſland and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in 64 deg. weſt lon. and in 11 N. lat. ſeparated from the coaſt of New Andaluſia, in Terra-firma, by a ſtreight of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a moſt agreeable proſpect. The iſland abounds in paſture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a ſcarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fiſhery on its coaſt, which is now diſcontinued.

There are many other ſmall iſlands in theſe ſeas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We ſhall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the firſt Spaniſh iſland of any importance is CHILOE, on the coaſt of Chili, which has a governor and ſome harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 deg. weſt lon. and 33 ſouth lat. 300 miles weſt of Chili. This iſland is uninhabited, but having ſome good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the Engliſh cruiſers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being diſcovered, unleſs when, as is generally the caſe, their arrival in the South Seas, and their motions have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends in Brazil. This iſland is famous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe. It ſeems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotſman, was left aſhore in this ſolitary place by his captain, where he lived ſome years, until he was diſcovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgot his native language, and could ſcarcely be underſtood, ſeeming to ſpeak his words by halves. He was dreſſed in goats ſkins, would drink nothing but water, and it was ſome time before he could reliſh the ſhip's victuals. During his abode in this iſland, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of theſe were caught, 30 years after, by lord Anſon's people; their venerable aſpect and majeſtic beards, diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was adviſed to publiſh an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He put his papers into the hands of Daniel Deſoe, to prepare them for publication. But that induſtrious gentleman, by the help of theſe papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinſon Cruſoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again, after defrauding him, by this piece of craft, of the benefits he was ſo juſtly entitled to hope from them.

The other iſlands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago iſles, ſituated 400 miles weſt of Peru, under the equator; and thoſe in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Iſlands.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA;

CONTAINING BRAZIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	2500	between	the equator and 35 S. latitude.
Breadth	700		35 and 60 W. longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the ſame ocean, on the eaſt; by the mouth of the river Plata, ſouth; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of Amazons, on the weſt.

On the coaſt are three ſmall iſlands, where ſhips touch for proviſions in their voyage to the South-Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES.] The Atlantic Ocean waſhes the coaſt of Brazil on the north-eaſt and eaſt, upwards of 3000 miles, forming ſeveral fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Panambuco, All-Saints, Porto-Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north ſhore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Auguſtine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary, the moſt ſoutherly promontory of Brazil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, CLIMATE AND RIVERS.] The name of Brazil was given to this country, becauſe it was obſerved to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brazil, which lies almoſt under the equator, the climate is hot, boiſterous, and unwholeſome, ſubject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have ſuch deluges of rain, with ſtorms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the ſouthward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more ſerene and wholeſome air, refreſhed with the ſoft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coaſt is in general rather low than high, but exceeding pleaſant, it being interſperſed with meadows and woods, but on the weſt, far within land, are mountains from whence iſſue many noble ſtreams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata, others running acroſs the country from eaſt to weſt till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the ſugar mills belonging to the Portugueſe.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the ſoil is extremely fruitful, producing ſugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muſcovado, as we call our unrefined ſugar. Alſo tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balſam of Copaibo, Brazil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly uſed in dying, but not the red of the beſt kind; it has likewiſe ſome place in medicine, as a ſtomachic and reſtringent.

The animals here are the ſame as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the ſoil was found very ſufficient for ſubſiſting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were diſcovered; theſe, with the ſugar plantations, occupy ſo many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in conſequence, Brazil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and cuſtoms of the Portugueſe in America, by the moſt judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are deſcribed as a people, who, while ſunk in the moſt effeminate luxury, practiſe the moſt deſperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and diſſembling; of little ſincerity in converſation, or honeſty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet, penurious; for, like the inhabitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they are much more fond of ſhew, ſtate, and attendance, than of the pleaſures of free ſociety, and of a good table; yet their feaſts, which are ſeldom made, are ſumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cauſe themſelves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammock, called Serpentines, which are borne on the negroes ſhoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Moſt of theſe hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the ſame colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of teſter, with curtains; ſo that the perſon carried cannot be ſeen, unleſs he pleaſes; but may either lie down or ſit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be ſeen, he pulls the curtains aſide, and ſalutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the ſtreets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the ſtreets; but then the two ſlaves who carry them, make uſe of a ſtrong well-made ſtaff, with an iron fork at the upper end and pointed below with iron: this they ſtick faſt in the ground, and reſt the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed on two of theſe, till their maſter's buſineſs or compliment is over. Scarce any man of faſhion, or any lady, will paſs the ſtreets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the ſame excluſive plan on which the ſeveral nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly reſembles the Spaniſh method, in not ſending out ſingle ſhips, as the convenience of the ſeveral places, and the judgment of the European merchants may direct; but by annual fleets, which ſail at ſtated times from Portugal, and compoſe three flotas, bound to as many ports in Brazil; namely, to Fernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the ſouthern extremity; and to the Bay of All-Saints, in the middle.

In this laſt is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and ſometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, ſpacious, and commodious harbour; it is built upon an high and ſteep rock, having the ſea upon one ſide, and a lake, forming a creſcent, inveſting it almoſt wholly ſo as nearly to join the ſea, on the other. The ſituation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have beſides added to it very ſtrong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond compariſon, the moſt gay and opulent city in all Brazil.

The trade of Brazil is very great, and increaſes every year; which is the leſs ſurpriſing, as the Portugueſe have opportunities of ſupplying themſelves with ſlaves for their ſeveral works at a much cheaper rate than

than any other European power that has ſettlements in America; they being the only European nation that has eſtabliſhed colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brazil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is ſuppoſed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000 l. This, with the ſugar, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give ſome idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ſhips carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal: they conſiſt of the woollen goods, of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the ſilks of France and Italy; ſilk and thread ſtockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all ſorts of utenſils wrought in theſe metals, from England; as well as ſalt-fiſh, beef, flour, and cheeſe. Oil they have from Spain; wine, with ſome fruit, is nearly all they are ſupplied with from Portugal.

England is at preſent moſt intereſted in the trade of Portugal, both for home conſumption and what they want for the uſe of the Brazils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Hence it is principally that Brazil is the richeſt, moſt flouriſhing, and moſt growing eſtabliſhment in America. Their exports of ſugar, within 40 years, is grown much greater than it was, though antiently it made almoſt the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raiſed in ſuch large quantities as in our American colonies. The northern and ſouthern parts of Brazil abound with horned cattle; theſe are hunted for their hides only, of which no leſs than 20,000 are ſent annually to Europe.

The Portugueſe were a conſiderable time poſſeſſed of Brazil before they diſcovered the treaſures of gold and diamonds, which have ſince made it ſo conſiderable. Their fleets rendezvous in the bay of All-Saints, to the amount of 100 ſail of large ſhips, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treaſures of the flota and galeons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions ſterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was firſt diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſio, in 1498, but the Portugueſe did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themſelves at the Bay of All-Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with ſome interruption at firſt from the court of Spain, who conſidered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portugueſe ſhould poſſeſs all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they ſtill enjoy. The French alſo made ſome attempts to plant colonies on this coaſt, but were driven from thence by the Portugueſe, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when in the very meridian of proſperity, they were ſtruck by one of thoſe blows which inſtantly decides the fate of kingdoms: don Sebaſtian, the king of Portugal, loſt his life in an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa, and by that

event the Portugueſe loſt their liberty, being abſorbed into the Spaniſh dominions.

The Dutch, ſoon after this, having thrown off the Spaniſh yoke, and not ſatisfied with ſupporting their independency by a ſucceſsful defenſive war, and fluſhed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, they purſued the Spaniards into the remoteſt receſſes of their extenſive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the ſpoils of their former maſters. They particularly attacked the poſſeſſions of the Portugueſe; they took almoſt all their fortreſſes in the Eaſt Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brazil, where they took ſeven of the captainſhips or provinces; and would have ſubdued the whole colony, had not their career been ſtopt by the archbiſhop, at the head of his monks, and a few ſcattered forces. The Dutch were, however, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brazil; but their Weſt-India company ſtill continuing their pretenſions to this country, and harraſſing the Portugueſe at ſea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tuns of gold, to relinquiſh their intereſt in that country; which was accepted; and the Portugueſe have remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of all Brazil from that time, till about the end of 1762, when the Spaniſh governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's ſiege, the Portugueſe frontier fortreſs called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was reſtored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE poſſeſſions and claims of the French before the laſt war, as appears by their maps, conſiſted of almoſt the whole continent of North America; which vaſt country they divided into two great provinces, the northern of which they called Canada (comprehending a much greater extent than the Britiſh province of that name) and in which they included a great part of our provinces of New-York, New-England, and New-Scotland. The ſouthern province they called Louiſiana, in which they included a part of Carolina. This diſtribution, and the military diſpoſition which the French made to ſupport it, formed the principal cauſe of the laſt war between Great Britain and that nation, the iſſue of which is well known to all the world. For while the French were rearing their infant colonies, and with the moſt ſanguine hopes, forming vaſt deſigns of an extenſive empire, one wrong ſtep in their politics loſt them the whole; their imaginary empire, which exiſted only upon the face of their maps, vaniſhed like ſmoke. They over-rated their ſtrength; and by commencing hoſtilities many years too ſoon, they were driven from Canada, and forced to yield to Great Britain all that fine country of Louiſiana eaſtward of the Miſſiſippi. At the treaty of peace, however, they were allowed to keep poſſeſſion of the weſtern banks of that river, and the ſmall town of New Orleans, near the mouth of it; which, in 1769, they ceded to Spain, for reaſons unknown to the public.

The French therefore, from being one of the greateſt European powers in that quarter, and to the Britiſh colonies, a very dangerous neighbour and rival; have, in the manner we have ſeen, loſt all footing in North America; but on the ſouthern continent they have ſtill a ſettlement which

is called Cayenne, or Equinoctial France, and is situated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of west longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, east; by Amazonia, south; and by Guiana, west. The chief town is Caen.

All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West-India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The island is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, the French have here some settlements, which raise sugar and coffee.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were amongst the last nations who made settlements in the West-Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

They are sensible that as the mother country is ultimately to receive all the benefit of their labours and acquisitions, the prosperity of their plantations must be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home. For this reason, the plantations are particularly under the care and inspection of the council of commerce, a board composed of twelve of the most considerable officers of the crown, assisted by the deputies of all the considerable trading towns and cities in France, who are chosen out of the richest and most intelligent of their traders, and paid a handsome salary for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their respective cities. This council sits once a week, when the deputies propose plans for redressing every grievance in trade, for raising the branches that are fallen, for extending new ones, for supporting the old, and, in fine, for every thing that may improve the working, or promote the vent of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or to the instructions of their constituents. When they are satisfied of the usefulness of any regulation, they propose it to the royal council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to enforce it accordingly issues; and is executed with a punctuality that distinguishes their government, and which alone can render the wisest regulations any thing better than serious mockeries. To this body, the care of the plantations is particularly entrusted.

The government of their several colonies, is a governor, an intendant, and a royal council. The governor is invested with a great deal of power; which, however, on the side of the crown, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of the king's rights, and whatever relates to the revenue: and on the side of the people, it is checked by the royal council, whose office it is to see that the people are not oppressed by the one, nor defrauded by the other: and they are all checked by the constant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them; the officers of all the

ports of France being charged under the ſevereſt penalties, to interrogate all captains of ſhips coming from the colonies, concerning the reception they met with at the ports to which they have ſailed? how juſtice was adminiſtered to them? what charges they were made liable to, and of what kinds?

That the colonies may be as little burthened as poſſible, and that the governor may have leſs temptation to ſtir up troubleſome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his ſalary is paid by the crown: he has no perquiſites, and is ſtrictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the iſlands or on the continent; or any intereſt whatever, in goods or lands, within his government, except the houſe he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country. The fortifications are built and repaired, and the ſoldiers paid out of the ſame funds.

In general, their colonies pay no taxes; but when, upon any extraordinary emergency, taxes have been raiſed, they were very moderate. The duties upon the export of their produce at the Weſt India iſlands, or at its import into France, is next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. What commodities go to them pay no duties at all.

Their other regulations, reſpecting the judges of the admiralty, law-ſuits, recovery of debts, lenity to ſuch as have ſuffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad ſeaſons; the peopling their colonies, number of whites to be employed by the planters, and, laſtly, the management of negroes, cannot be ſufficiently admired; and would, doubtleſs, be of great uſe, were ſome of them introduced into our ſugar iſlands, where proper regulations in many reſpects ſeem to be much wanted.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, as the moſt important and valuable of all their foreign ſettlements, and which they poſſeſs through the indolence of the Spaniards on that iſland, or the partiality of their court to the French nation. We ſhall next proceed to the iſlands of which the French have the ſole poſſeſſion, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO.] Which is ſituated between 14 and 15 deg. of north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt lon. lying about 40 leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out upon every ſide, a number of agreeable and uſeful rivers, which adorn and enrich this iſland in a high degree. The produce of the ſoil is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and ſuch fruits as are found in the neighbouring iſlands. But ſugar is here, as in all the Weſt India iſlands, the principal commodity, of which they export a conſiderable quantity annually. Martinico is the reſidence of the governor of the French iſlands in theſe ſeas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, ſafe, and commodious; and ſo well fortified, that they uſed to bid defiance to the Engliſh, who in vain attempted this place. However, in the laſt war, when the Britiſh arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this iſland was added to the Britiſh empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain, is ſituated in 16 deg. north lat. and in 62 weſt lon. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almoſt

as

as much ſouth of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhips can venture; but the inhabitants paſs it in a ferry boat. Its ſoil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This iſland is in a flouriſhing condition, and its exports of ſugar, almoſt incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the Engliſh, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the Britiſh arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

ST. LUCIA.] Situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt lon. 80 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being diſcovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the Engliſh, that this iſland, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral. But the French, before the late war broke out, began to ſettle theſe iſlands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this iſland to France. The ſoil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleaſant rivers, and well ſituated harbours.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE, } Are three ſmall iſlands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Chriſtophers, and are of no great conſequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give ſhelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our Weſt India trade. It would therefore be good policy in Great Britain, upon the breaking out of a war with France, immediately to take poſſeſſion of theſe iſlands, which would ſeem to be a matter of no great difficulty, as they have been frequently reduced by the Engliſh, and as frequently given back to the French; who have often, and upon many occaſions, experienced the generoſity of the Britiſh court.

DUTCH AMERICA.

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portugueſe had diſpoſſeſſed the Dutch of Brazil in the manner we have ſeen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to conſole themſelves with their rich poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, and to ſit down content in the Weſt with Surinam; a country once in the poſſeſſion of England, but of no great value whilſt we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; and with two or three ſmall and barren iſlands in the north ſea, not far from the Spaniſh Main.

Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, is ſituated between 5 and 7 deg. north lat. extending 100 miles along the coaſt from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, ſouth. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholeſome; and a conſiderable

able part of the coaſt is low and covered with water. The chief ſettlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the ſame name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. The colony is now in the moſt flouriſhing ſituation, not only with Europe, but with the Weſt-India iſlands. Their chief trade conſiſts in ſugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, ſkins, and ſome valuable dying drugs. They trade with our North American colonies, who bring hither horſes, live cattle, and proviſions; and take home a large quantity of molaſſes; but their negroes are only the refuſe of thoſe they have for the Spaniſh market.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIA.] SITUATED three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, and is only a mountain about 29 miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea like a pyramid, and almoſt round. But, though ſo ſmall, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch have made it turn out to very good account; and it is ſaid to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The ſides of the mountain are laid out in very pretty ſettlements; but they have neither ſprings nor rivers. They raiſe here ſugar and tobacco; and this iſland, as well as Curaſſou, is engaged in the Spaniſh contraband trade, for which, however, it is not ſo well ſituated; and it draws the ſame advantage from its conſtant neutrality. Its ſituation renders it the ſtrongeſt of all the Weſt-India iſlands, there being but one good landing-place, which may be eaſily defended by a few men; and the haven is commanded by a ſtrong fort.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 deg. north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long and 10 broad. It ſeems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders ſhould every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting againſt an unfriendly nature; for the iſland is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worſt in America: yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largeſt, and by far the moſt elegant and cleanly towns in the Weſt Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handſome; the private houſes commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; ſome of them ſo well contrived, that ſhips are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this iſland is naturally barren, the induſtry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a conſiderable quantity both of tobacco and ſugar; it has, beſides, good ſalt-works, for the produce of which there is a briſk demand from the Engliſh iſlands, and their colonies on the continent. But what renders this iſland of moſt advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch at this iſland for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns,

guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous warehouſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, ſilks, ribbons, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt-India, which is alſo their African company, annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods; and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of warehouſes and mercers ſhops, with every thing that is grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, jeſuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in time of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than 500,000 l. but in time of war, the profit is ſtill greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the Weſt-Indies: it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition to deſtroy one another. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies have ſcarce any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the Engliſh bring from the continent of North America, or which is exported from Ireland; ſo that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt-India company alone: at preſent, ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licenſes: the company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The ſmall iſlands of Saba and St. Martins, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatia, hardly deſerve to be mentioned: the latter is partly inhabited by the Engliſh.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconſiderable member of the Caribbees, ſituated in 64 deg. weſt lon. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt-India company, were ill managed, and of little conſequence to the Danes; but that wiſe and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of 3000 hogſheads of ſugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the Weſt-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale; and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh Main, and return with money in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandize. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to ſettle faſt; ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement to do ſo.

Theſe two nations, the Dutch and Danes (and we may now add the French) hardly deſerve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their poſſeſſions there are comparatively nothing. But as they appear extremely worthy of the attention of theſe powers, and as the ſhare of the Dutch is worth to them at leaſt 600,000 l. a year, what muſt we think of our extenſive and valuable poſſeſſions? what attention do they not deſerve from us? and what may not be made of them by that attention?

"There ſeems to be a remarkable providence (ſays an ingenious and polite writer) in caſting the parts, if I may uſe that expreſſion, of the ſeveral European nations who act upon the ſtage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate; a ſoft climate to indulge his love of eaſe, and a profuſion of gold and ſilver to procure him all thoſe luxuries his pride demands, but which his lazineſs would refuſe him.

The Portugueze, naturally indigent at home, and enterprizing rather than induſtrious abroad, has gold and diamonds as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but poſſeſſes them in a more uſeful, though a leſs oſtentatious manner.

The Engliſh, of a reaſoning diſpoſition, thoughtful and cool, and men of buſineſs rather than of great induſtry, impatient of much fruitleſs labour, abhorrent of conſtraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor ſilver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent; a noble field for the exerciſe of agriculture, and ſufficient to furniſh their trade without laying them under great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the moſt uſeful reſtraints, their commerce flouriſhes from the freedom every man has of purſuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own faſhion.

The French, active, lively, enterprizing, pliable, and politic; and tho' changing their purſuits, always purſuing the preſent object with eagerneſs, are, notwithſtanding, tractable and obedient to rules and laws, which bridle their diſpoſitions, and wind and turn them to proper courſes. Theſe people have a country (when Canada was in their poſſeſſion) where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground; where a peddling commerce, that requires conſtant motion, flouriſhes more than agriculture, or a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert by ſtruggling with them, and where their obedience to a wiſe government (meaning the excellent regulations already mentioned

tioned reſpecting the French colonies in America,) ſerves them for perſonal wiſdom. In the iſlands, the whole is the work of their policy, and a right turn their government has taken.

The Dutch have got a rock or two, on which to diſplay the miracles of frugality and diligence (which are their virtues) and on which they have exerted theſe virtues, and ſhewn thoſe miracles."

TERRA-INCOGNITA, or unknown Countries.

In AMERICA.

IN North-America, towards the pole, are Labrador or New-Britain, New-North and South Wales, New-Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like thoſe of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and theſe ſavage; low in ſtature, and of an ugly appearance, ſcarcely reſembling any thing human. They live upon the raw fleſh of whales, bears, foxes, &c. and go muffled up in ſkins, the hairy ſides next their bodies. In theſe unhoſpitable regions, their nights (as may be ſeen in the table of climates in the Introduction) are from one to ſix months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable ſnow; ſo that the miſerable inhabitants live under ground great part of the year. Again, when the ſun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vaſt tract on the back of the Britiſh ſettlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which waſhes America on the weſt, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and ſituation of the country, it is ſuppoſed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom uſed to reſort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazones on the ſouth, is unknown, except a ſlip along the coaſt, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made ſome ſettlements; which, from the unhealthfulneſs of the climate, almoſt under the equator, and other cauſes, can hardly be extended any conſiderable way back.

The country of Amazonia, ſo called from the great river of that name, has never been thoroughly diſcovered, though it is ſituated between the European colonies of Peru and Brazil, and every where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portugueſe, but being always attended with vaſt difficulties, ſo that few of the adventurers ever returned back, and no gold being found in the country as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any ſettlement there.

Patagonia, at the ſouthern extremity of America, is ſometimes deſcribed as part of Chili; but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almoſt unknown, and is generally repreſented as a barren unhoſpitable country. And here in 52 ½ deg. ſouth lat. we fall in with the ſtreights of Magellan, having Patagonia, on the north, and the iſlands of Terra del Fuego, on the ſouth. Theſe

ſtreights extend from eaſt to weſt 110 leagues, but the breadth in ſome places falls ſhort of one. They were firſt diſcovered by Magellan, Portugueſe in the ſervice of Spain, who ſailed through them, in the year 1520, and thereby diſcovered a paſſage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been ſince conſidered as the firſt navigator that ſailed round the world, but having loſt his life in a ſkirmiſh with ſome Indians before the ſhip's return to Europe, the honour of being the firſt circum-navigator has been diſputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who in 1574 paſſed the ſame ſtreight in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the cape of Good-Hope. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the ſouthward of theſe ſtreights, diſcovered in lat. 54 ½ another paſſage, ſince known by the name of Streights La Maire, and this paſſage, which has been generally preferred by ſucceeding navigators, is called doubling cape Horn. The author of Anſon's voyage, however, from fatal experience, adviſes mariners to keep clear of theſe ſtreights and iſlands, by running down to 61 or 62 deg. ſouth lat. before they attempt to ſet their face weſtward, towards the South-Seas; but the extreme long nights and intenſe cold in thoſe latitudes, render that paſſage practicable only in the months of January and February, which there is the middle of ſummer.

IN ASIA.

TOWARDS the north-eaſt, are Yeſdo, Kamtſchatſka, and other countries or iſlands, which the Ruſſians are daily diſcovering, but are imperfectly known even to that court, and ſuppoſed to be joined to North-America, or very near that part of the globe.

Below the Molucca iſles, in the Eaſt-Indies, are New Guinea, Carpentaria, New Holland, Dieman's Land, and, a little farther, New Zealand; regions diſcovered by the Dutch and Engliſh about the middle of the laſt century, and are ſuppoſed to be a vaſt continent, entirely ſeparated from Aſia or America; but our knowledge of them, even at this time, is very imperfect, our navigators having only ſailed along the coaſts, which ſtretch from the equator to 44 degrees of ſouth latitude, by whom we learn that the natives are black, go naked, and in ſome places are very numerous.

Beſides theſe countries, the Europeans are daily making diſcoveries of iſlands that are ſcattered up and down the Pacific Ocean; and it is generally believed that there are many large tracts of land towards the ſouth-pole, of which at preſent we know nothing.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulphs, Bays, Streights, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the moſt authentic Charts, Maps and Obſervations.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Aberdeen,	Aberdeenſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-22N.	1-40W.
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North	Amer.	17-10N.	101-40W.
Adriatic Sea, or G. of Venice,	between	Italy & Turkey,	Europe, Mediterranean Sea.		
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	42-00N.	26-30 E.
Agra,	Agra,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	26-43N.	76-30 E.
Air,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30N.	4-35W.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	35-42N.	37-24 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-10N.	30-19 E.
Albany,	New York,	North	Amer.	42-48N.	73-30W.
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-50N.	3-16 E.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	4-25 S.	127-25 E.
Amsterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-23N.	5-04 E.
Annapolis,	Nova Scotia,	North	Amer.	45-00N.	64-00W.
Annapolis,	Maryland,	North	Amer.	39-00N.	76-50W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	36-30N.	32-46 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13N.	4-29 E.
Archipelago,	Iſlands of	Greece,	Europe, Mediter. Sea.		
Archangel,	Dwina,	Ruſſia,	Europe	64-30N.	40-30 E.
Aſtracan,	Aſtracan,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	47-00N.	52-00 E.
Athens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe	37-58N.	24-05 E.
Atlantic Ocean,	ſeparates	Eu. Aſia, Afr.	from America		
Ava,	Ava,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	20-20N.	95-30 E.
Bay of Biſcay	Coaſt of	France,	Europe, Atlantic Ocean.		
— of Beng.	Coaſt of	India,	Aſia, Indian Ocean.		
Baltic Sea,	between	Ger. & Swed.	Europe, Atlantic Ocean.		
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	Amer.	39-35 S.	81-10W.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-40N.	37-00 E.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	42-26N.	2-18 E.
Baſtia,	Corſica Iſle,	Italy,	Europe	42-20N.	9-40 E.
Bath,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe	51-27N.	2-32W.
Bagdat,	Eyraca Arab.	Turkey,	Aſia	33-40N.	45-00 E.
Baſſora,	Eyraca Arab.	Turkey,	Aſia	30-45N.	48-00 E.
Batavia,	Java Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	6-00 S.	107-00 E.
Bazil,	Bazil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-40N.	7-40 E.
Belfaſt,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	54-39N.	6-30W.
Bender,	Beſſarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46-40N.	29-00 E.
Bergen,	Bergen,	Norway,	Europe	60-10N.	5-40 E.
Berlin,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52-33N.	13-32 E.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-00N.	7-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwick,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48N.	1-45W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45-00N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	3-55 S.	101-00 E.
Bilboa,	Biſcay,	Spain,	Europe	43-26N.	3-18W.
Birmingham,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52-30N.	1-50W.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Bombay,	Bombay Isle,	East India,	Asia	19-00N.	71-30 E.
Bokharia,	Usbec	Tartary,	Asia	39-15N.	67-00 E.
Bourdeaux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-50N.	00-38W.
Borroughston-nes,	Linlithgowsh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-44W.
Boston,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53-10N.	00-25 E.
BOSTON,	Massachusets,	New England,	Amer.	42-20N.	70-40W.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-40N.	4-40 E.
Brest,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	48-23N.	4-25W.
Bremen,	Low. Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53-25N.	8-20 E.
BRESLAU,	Silesia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51-15N.	16-50 E.
Bristol,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-33N.	2-40W.
British Sea,	between	Brit. & Germ.	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Black, or Euxine Sea,	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia.		
BRUSSELS,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-50N.	4-06 E.
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-16N.	3-05 E.
Brunswick,	Low. Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-30N.	10-30 E.
Buda,	Lower	Hungary,	Europe	47-40N.	19-20 E.
BURLINGTON,	Jersey,	North	Amer.	40-08N.	75-00W.
BUENOS AYRES,	La Plata,	South	Amer.	34-35 S.	57-54W.
CAIRO,	Lower	Egypt,	Africa	30-00N.	32-00 E.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe	39-25N.	9-38 E.
CACHAO,	Tonquin,	East India,	Asia	21-30N.	105-00 E.
Calais,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50-58N.	1-54 E.
Cambletown,	Argyleshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30N.	5-40W.
Cambridge,	Cambridgesh.	England	Europe	52-15N.	00-05 E.
Cadiz,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-33N.	6-01W.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-00N.	87-00 E.
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-16N.	1-15 E.
Candia,	Candy Island,	Turkey,	Asia	35-19N.	25-23 E.
CANTON,	Canton,	China,	Asia	23-14N.	113-06 E.
CAMBODIA,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	13-30N.	105-00 E.
Carlisle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-47N.	2-35W.
Carthage ruins,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30N.	9-00 E.
CARTHAGENA	Terra Firma,	South	Amer.	10-28N.	77-00W.
Cardigan,	Cardiganshire,	Wales,	Europe	52-10N.	4-38W.
Candy,	Ceylone I.	East India,	Asia	7-54N.	79-00 E.
Caspian Sea,	Russian	Tartary,	Asia.		
Cassel,	Hesse-Cassel,	Germany,	Europe	51-20N.	9-20 E.
Cape Clear,	Cork,	Ireland,	Europe	51-10N.	9-40W.
—— Finistere,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-12N.	16-05W.
—— Vincent,	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe	36-53N.	9-06W.
—— Verd,		Negroland,	Africa	14-43N.	17-20W.
—— of Good Hope,	Hottentots,	Cafraria,	Africa	34-07 S.	19-35 E.
—— Comorin,	Hither India,	Mogul Empire,	Asia	7-50N.	77-30 E.
—— Florida,	East Florida,	North	Amer.	24-57N.	80-30W.
—— Horn,	Delfuego Isle,	South	Amer.	56-35 S.	79-55W.
Cattegate Sea,	between	Swed. & Denm.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Ceuta,	Fez	Morocco,	Africa	35-54N.	6-30W.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Cheſter,	Cheſhire,	England,	Europe	53-15N.	3-00W.
CHARLES TOWN,	South Carolina	North	Amer.	32-45N.	79-12W.
Civita Vech.	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	42-05N.	12-30 E.
COPENHAGEN	Zealand Iſle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-41N.	12-50 E.
Cork,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	51-49N.	8-40W.
Coventry,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52-25N.	1-25W.
CONSTANTINOPLE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-00N.	28-56 E.
Conſtance,	Swabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-37N.	9-12 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30N.	23-00 E.
Cracow,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe	50-00N.	19-30 E.
Curaſſou,	Curaſſou Iſle,	Weſt India,	Amer.	11-56N.	68-20W.
Cuſco,	Peru,	South	Amer.	12-25 S.	70-00W.
DAmaſcus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-15N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic,	Poliſh Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-22N.	18-36 E.
Dacca,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	23-30N.	89-20 E.
DELLY,	Delly,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	29-00N.	76-30 E.
Delſt,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-06N.	4-05 E.
Derbent,	Dagiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	41-40N.	50-30 E.
Derby,	Derbyſhire,	England,	Europe	52-58N.	1-30W.
Derry,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	54-52N.	7-40W.
Dieu,	Malabar,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-37N.	69-30 E.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-08N.	1-25 E.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-00N.	13-36 E.
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-26N.	2-48W.
DUBLIN,	Leinſter,	Ireland,	Europe	53-20N.	6-28W.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-48N.	1-25W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-54N.	4-20W.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-00N.	2-20 E.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	2-25W.
Dumfries,	Dumfrieſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-08N.	3-25W.
ENgl. Chan.	between	Engl. & France,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Epheſus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	38-01N.	27-53 E.
EDINBURGH,	Edinburghſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-00W.
Elbing,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-15N.	20-00 E.
Embden,	Lower	Germany,	Europe	53-25N.	7-10 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coaſt of	Guinea,	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Exeter,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe	50-44N.	3-30W.
FAlkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-48W.
Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-10N.	5-20W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33-30N.	6-00W.
Ferrol,	Gallicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-30N.	8-40W.
FLORENCE,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe	43-30N.	12-15 E.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	12-05N.	80-55 E.
GEneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-20N.	6-00 E.
GENOA,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44-25N.	9-00 E.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-00N.	3-36 E.
Gibraltar,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	36-00N.	6-00W.
Glaſgow,	Lanerkſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-50N.	4-05W.
Glouceſter,	Glouceſterſh.	England,	Europe	51-50N.	2-16W.
Goa,	Malabar,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	15-31N.	74-20 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Gombroon,	Farſiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	27-30N.	57-25 E.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	58-00N.	11-30 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-52N.	4-22W.
Guam,	Landrone Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14-00N.	140-30 E.
G. of Bothnia,	Coaſt of	Sweden,	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
—— Finland,	between	Swed. & Ruſ.	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
—— Venice,	between	Italy & Turk.	Europe,	Mediter. Sea.	
—— Ormus,	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
—— Perſia,	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia	Indian Ocean	
—— St. Lawr.	Coaſt of	New Scotland,	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean	
—— Californ.	between	Calif. & Mexico,	N. Amer.	Pacific Ocean.	
—— Mexico,	Coaſt of	Mexico,	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean.	
HAGUE,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-10N.	4-00 E.
Hamburg,	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe	53-41N.	9-40 E.
Helleſpont,	Med. & Bl. Sea,	Europe and	Aſia.		
Hallifax,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-45N.	1-52W.
HALLIFAX,	Nova Scotia,	North	Amer.	44-40N.	63-15W.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-32N.	9-35 E.
Havannah,	Cuba	Iſland,	Amer.	23-00N.	84-00W.
Haerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-20N.	4-10 E.
Hughly,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-45N.	87-55 E.
Hereford,	Herefordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-06N.	2-38W.
Hull,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-45N.	0-12W.
Hudſon's Bay,	Coaſt of	Labrador	N. Amer.	Northern Ocean.	
ISthmus of Suez,	joins	Africa to	Aſia.		
—— Corinth,	joins the Morea to	Greece,	Europe.		
—— Panama,	joins	North and S.	America.		
—— Malacca,	joins Malacca to	Further India,	Aſia.		
JEDDO,	Japan Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	36-20N.	139-00 E.
JERUSALEM,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia	32-00N.	36-00 E.
Indian Ocean,	Coaſt of	India,	Aſia,	Southern Ocean.	
Inverneſs,	Inverneſsſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-33N.	4-02W.
Iriſh Sea,	between	G. Brit. & Irel.	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Aſia	32-50N.	51-30 E.
Ivica,	Ivica Iſle,	Italy,	Europe	38-50N.	1-40 E.
KElſo,	Roxboroughſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-38N.	2-12W.
Kilmarnock,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38N.	4-30W.
Kinſale,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	51-32N.	8-20W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	Weſt India,	Amer.	17-40N.	77-00W.
KONINGSBERG,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-43N.	21-35 E.
LAncaſter,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	54-05N.	2-55W.
Levant Sea,	Coaſt of	Syria,	Aſia,	Mediterranean Sea.	
Lahor,	Lahor,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	32-40N.	75-30 E.
Leith,	Edinburghſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-00W.
Leeds,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-48N.	1-24W.
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-12N.	4-05 E.
Leipſic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-20N.	12-40 E.
Leiceſter,	Leiceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	52-40N.	1-05W.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-56N.	3-30W.
Lincoln,	Lincolnſhire,	England,	Europe	53-15N.	00-27W.
Liſle,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-42N.	3-00 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Limerick,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	52-35N.	8-48W.
Lisbon,	Eſtramadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38-42N.	8-53W.
Lima,	Peru,	South	Amer.	12-15 S.	77-30W.
Litchfield,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-43N.	1-40W.
Louisburg,	Cape Breton I.	North	Amer.	45-54N.	59-30W.
Loretto,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	43-15N.	14-15 E.
LONDON,	Middleſex,	England,	Europe	51-30N.	*firſt Mer.*
London Derry,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	55-00N.	7-40W.
Lubec,	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe	54-00N.	11-40 E.
Lyons,	Lyons,	France,	Europe	45-46N.	4-55 E.
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands,	Europe	49-40N.	5-40 E.
MAcao,	Canton,	China,	Aſia	22-13N.	113-51 E.
Majorca,	Majorca Iſle,	Spain,	Europe	39-30N.	3-03 E.
Madrid,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe	40-30N.	4-15W.
Mancheſter,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	53-30N.	2-22W.
Malta,	Malta Iſle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	35-53N.	14-32 E.
Mantua,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45-20N.	10-47 E.
Malacca,	Malacca,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	2-12N.	101-00 E.
Madraſs,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	13-11N.	80-32 E.
Manilla,	Philippine I.	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14-20N.	118-00 E.
Marſeilles,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-15N.	5-20 E.
Medina,	Arab. Deſerta,	Arabia,	Aſia	25-00N.	39-53 E.
Mecca,	Arab. Deſerta,	Arabia,	Aſia	21-45N.	41-00 E.
Mediter. Sea,	between	Europe and	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-30N.	6-00 E.
Messina,	Sicily Iſland,	Mediter. Sea,	Europe	38-30N.	15-40 E.
Mexico,	Mexico,	North	Amer.	20-00N.	103-00W.
Milford Haven,	Pembrokeſhire,	Wales,	Europe	51-45N.	5-15W.
Milan,	Milaneſe,	Italy,	Europe	45-25N.	9-30 E.
Mocho,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	13-40N.	43-50 E.
Modena,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe	44-45N.	11-20 E.
Montreal,	Canada,	North	Amer.	45-35N.	73-11W.
Montpelier,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-30N.	3-50 E.
Montroſe,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-34N.	2-20W.
Morocco,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa	30-32N.	6-10W.
Moſcow,	Moſcow,	Ruſſia,	Europe	55-45N.	37-51 E.
Munſter,	Weſtphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52-00N.	7-10 E.
NAncy,	Lorrain,	Germany,	Europe	48-44N.	6-00 E.
Nanking,	Nanking,	China,	Aſia	32-00N.	118-30 E.
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	41-00N.	14-19 E.
Narva,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	59-00N.	27-35 E.
Newcaſtle,	Northumber-land,	England,	Europe	55-03N.	1-24W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43-42N.	7-05 E.
Newport,	Rhode Iſland,	North	Amer.	41-35N.	71-06W.
New York,	New York,	North	Amer.	40-40N.	74-00W.
Nineveh,	Aſſyria,	Turkey,	Aſia	36-00N.	45-00 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamſh.	England,	Europe	53-00N.	1-06W.
Northampton,	Northamp-tonſhire,	England,	Europe	52-15N.	00-55W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-40N.	1-25 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
OLympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30N.	22-00 E.
Olmutz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49-30N.	16-45 E.
Oporto,	Duoro,	Portugal,	Europe	41-10N.	9-00W.
Ormus,	Ormus Iſle,	Perſia,	Aſia	26-50N.	57-00 E.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30N.	0-05 E.
Oſtend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-15N.	2-45 E.
Oxford,	Oxfordſhire,	England,	Europe	51-45N.	1-15W.
PAcific or Oriental O.	between	Aſia and	America.		
Padua,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45-30N.	12-15 E.
Paiſley,	Renfrewſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48N.	4-08W.
Palermo,	Sicily Iſle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	38-30N.	13-43 E.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-00N.	39-00 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	Amer.	8-50N.	81-52W.
Paris,	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe	48-50N.	2-25 E.
Parma,	Parmeſan,	Italy,	Europe	44-45N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	25-45N.	83-00 E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	17-00N.	97-00 E.
Pekin,	Pekin,	China,	Aſia	40-00N.	116-28 E.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeſhire,	Wales,	Europe	51-45N.	4-50W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08N.	6-00W.
Pensacola,	Weſt Florida,	North	Amer.	30-22N.	87-20W.
Perth,	Perthſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-22N.	3-12W.
Perthamboy,	New York,	North	Amer.	40-30N.	74-20W.
Perſepolis,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Aſia	30-30N.	54-00 E.
Petersburg,	Ingria,	Ruſſia,	Europe	60-00N.	30-25 E.
Philadelphia	Penſylvania,	North	Amer.	40-00N.	75-20W.
Piſa,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe	43-36N.	11-15 E.
Placentia,	Newfound. Iſle,	North	Amer.	47-26N.	55-00W.
Plymouth,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe	50-26N.	4-15W.
Plymouth,	New England,	North	Amer.	41-48N.	70-25W.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	12-27N.	80-00 E.
Portſmouth,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	50-48N.	1-06W.
Portſmouth,	New England,	North	Amer.	43-10N.	70-20W.
Porto Bello,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	Amer.	10-00N.	82-00W.
Port l'Orient,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	47-42N.	3-15W.
Port Royal,	Jamaica Iſle,	Weſt India,	Amer.	18-00N.	77-00W.
Potoſi,	Peru,	South	Amer.	21-00 S.	67-00W.
Prague,	———	Bohemia,	Europe	50-00N.	14-20 E.
Preſton,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	53-45N.	2-50W.
Presburg,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe	48-20N.	17-30 E.
QUebec,	Canada,	North	Amer.	46-55N.	69-48W.
Quito,	Peru,	South	Amer.	0-30 S.	78-00W.
RAguſa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe	42-45N.	18-25 E.
Ratiſbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-56N.	12-05 E.
Revel,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	59-00N.	25-07 E.
Rheims,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49-14N.	4-00 E.
Rhodes,	Rhodes Iſland	Levant Sea,	Aſia	36-20N.	28-00 E.
Riga,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	56-55N.	24-00 E.
Rome,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	41-54N.	12-45 E.
Roſetto,	Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-10N.	41-35 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-55N.	4-30 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Rouen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-26N.	1-10 E.
St. Augustin,	East Florida,	North	Amer.	29-45N.	81-12W.
— Domingo,	Hiſpaniola I.	WeſtIa ia,	Amer.	18-20N.	70-00W.
— Helena,	St. Helena,	Iſland.	Africa	16-00 S.	6-30W.
— Jago,	Chili,	South	Amer.	34-00 S.	77-00W.
— Salvador,	Brazil,	South	Amer.	13-00 S.	38-00W.
Sallee,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-00N.	6-20W.
Samarcand,	Uſbec	Tartary,	Aſia	40-40N.	69-00 E.
Saliſbury,	Wiltſhire,	England,	Europe	51-06N.	1-45W.
Santa Fe,	New Mexico,	North	Amer.	36-00N.	104-00W.
Savannah,	Georgia,	North	Amer.	31-55N.	80-20W.
Sayd, or Thebes	Upper	Egypt,	Africa	27-00N.	32-20 E.
Samaria Ruins,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Aſia	32-40N.	38-00 E.
St. George's Channel,	between	Engl. & Irel.	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Scarborough,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	54-18N.	0-10W.
Scone,	Perthſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-24N.	3-10W.
Sea of Aſof,	Little Tartary,	Europe &	Aſia,	Black Sea.	
— Marmora,	Turkey in	Europe and	Aſia,	Black Sea.	
— Kamſchatka,	Coaſt of	Kamſchatka,	Aſia,	Pacific Ocean.	
— Korea,	Coaſt of	Korea,	Aſia,	Pacific Ocean.	
Shrewſbury,	Shropſhire,	England,	Europe	52-43N.	2-46W.
Shields,	Durham,	England,	Europe	55-02N.	1-15W.
Sheerneſs,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-25N.	00-50 E.
Schiras,	Farſiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	29-30N.	53-00 E.
Seville,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	37-15N.	6-05W.
Siam,	Siam,	East India,	Aſia	14-18N.	100-55 E.
Sidon,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-33N.	36-15 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	38-28N.	29-00 E.
Southampton,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	50-55N.	1-25W.
Spaw,	Liege,	Germany,	Europe	50-30N.	5-40 E.
Sound,	between	Denm. & Swed.	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
Stafford,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-50N.	2-00W.
Sterling,	Sterlingſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-10N.	3-50W.
Stralſund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-23N.	13-22 E.
Straſburg,	Alſace,	Germany,	Europe	48-38N.	7-51 E.
Stockholm,	Uplandia,	Sweden,	Europe	59-30N.	18-08 E.
Streights of Dover,	between	Eng. & France,	Europe,	Eng. Channel.	
— Gibraltar,	between	Europe and	Africa,	Mediter. Sea.	
— Babelmandel,	between	Africa and	Aſia,	Red Sea.	
— Ormus,	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia,	Perſian Gulph.	
— Malacca,	between	Malac. & Sumat.	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
— Magellan,	in Patagonia	South	Amer.	Atlant. & S. Sea.	
— La Maire,	in Patagonia	South	Amer.	Atlant. & S. Sea.	
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29-50N.	33-27 E.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-55N.	1-10W.
Surinam,	Surinam,	South	America	6-00N.	55-30W.
Surat,	Cambaya,	East India,	Aſia	21-10N.	72-25 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quart.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Syracuſe,	Sicily Iſle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	37-04N.	15-05 E
TAngier,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-42N.	5-45W
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	11-27N.	79-07 E
Tauris, or Ecbatana,	Medea,	Perſia,	Aſia	38-20N.	46-30 E
Teflis,	Georgia,	Perſia,	Aſia	43-30N.	47-00 E
Tetuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-40N.	5-18W
Thorn,	Regal Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	52-56N.	19-00 E
TOBOLSKI,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	58-00N.	69-00 E
Toledo,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe	39-45N.	4-12W
Toulon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-07N.	6-00 E
Trapeſond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	41-50N.	40-30 E
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46-05N.	11-02 E
Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	39-30N.	26-30 E
TRIPOLI,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	33-30N.	14-30 E
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	34-30N.	36-15 E
TUNIS,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-47N.	10-00 E
TURIN,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	44-50N.	7-30 E
Tyre,	Judea,	Turkey,	Aſia	32-32N.	36-00 E
UTrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-07N.	5-00 E
VEra Cruz,	Old Mexico,	North	Amer.	18-30N.	97-48W
Verſailles,	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe	48-40N.	2-15 E
VIENNA,	Auſtria,	Germany,	Europe	48-20N.	16-20 E
WArwick,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52-18N.	1-32W
WARSAW,	Warſovia,	Poland,	Europe	52-15N.	21-05 E
Waterford,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	52-12N.	7-16W
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-38N.	3-36W
WILLIAMSBURG,	Virginia,	North	Amer.	37-12N.	76-48W
Wells,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe	51-12N.	2-40W
Wincheſter,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	51-06N.	1-15W
Worms,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-38N.	8-05 E
Worceſter,	Worceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	52-10N.	2-15W
YArmouth,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-45N.	1-48 E
York,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	54-00N.	1-03W

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FINIS.

MVSEVM BRITAN

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE,

The Most *Copious* and *Authentick* that ever was publiſhed, of the preſent State of the *Real* and *Imaginary* MONIES *of the* WORLD:

Divided into FOUR PARTS, *viz.*

EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, and *AMERICA;*

Which are Sub-divided into Sixty Parts or Lines, containing the Names of the Moſt Capital Places, the Species whereof are ſpecified, each Subdiviſion in one Line, aſcending from the Beginning to the End, teaching how the Monies are reckoned by the reſpective Nations; and the Figures ſtanding under the Denomination of each Foreign Piece, is the *Engliſh* intrinſick Value thereof, according to the beſt Aſſays made at the *Mint* of the *Tower of* LONDON.

EXPLANATION.

By *Real Money*, is underſtood an effective Specie, repreſenting in itſelf, the Value denominated thereby, as, A GUINEA, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the *Imaginary Money*, which is generally made uſe of in keeping Accompts, ſignifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be repreſented but by ſeveral other Pieces, as A POUND Sterling, &c.

= This Mark of Alligation and Dependance is the Sign of Equality, ſignifying *is*, *make*, or *equal to*.

☞ This Mark is ſet under each Line, to lead the Eye to the intrinſick Value in Sterling of each Foreign Piece ſtanding over it; and all Fractions therein contained are Parts of a PENNY.

Humbly Dedicated to the MERCHANTS of the *BRITISH* EMPIRE.

Northern Parts. EUROPE. Southern Parts.

EUROPE.

GERMANY.

ENGLAND and SCOTLAND	London, Briſtol, Liverpool, &c. Edinb. Glaſgow, Aberdeen, &c.	A Farthing ☞ ¼ of 1d.	2 Farthings is	A Halfpenny ½ of 1d.	2 Halfpence is	A Penny 1d.	4 Pence	is	A Groat 4d.	6 pence	is	A Half Shilling 6d.	12 Pence	is	A Shilling 1s.	5 Shillings	is	A Crown 5s.	20 Shillings	is	* A Pound Ster. 1l.	21 Shillings	is	A Guinea 1l. 1s.
	Iſle of MAN, Caſtle Town, Douglas, &c.	* A Farthing ☞ $\frac{1}{4}$	2 Farthings =	A Halfpenny $\frac{1}{2}$	2 Halfpence =	A Penny $\frac{6}{7}$	7 Pence	=	A Half Shilling 6d.	12 Pence	=	* A Shilling Manks 1od. $\frac{2}{7}$	14 Pence	=	A Shilling 1s.	70 Pence	=	A Crown 5s.	20 Shillings	=	* A Pound Manks 17s. 1d. $\frac{1}{7}$	24 ½ Shillings	=	A Guinea 1l. 1s.
IRELAND, Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.		A Farthing ☞ $\frac{3}{11}$	2 Farthings =	A Halfpenny $\frac{6}{11}$	2 Halfpence =	* A Penny $\frac{12}{13}$	6 ½ Pence	=	A Half Shilling 6d.	12 pence	=	* Shilling Iriſh 11d. $\frac{3}{26}$	13 Pence	=	A Shilling 1s.	65 Pence	=	A Crown 5s.	20 Shillings	=	* A Pound Iriſh 18s. 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$	22 ½ Shillings	=	A Guinea 1l. 1s.
FLANDERS & BRABANT	Ghent, Oſtend, &c. Antwerp, Bruſſels, &c.	* A Pening ☞ $\frac{9}{1280}$	4 Peningens =	An Urche $\frac{9}{320}$	8 Peningens =	* A Grot $\frac{9}{160}$	2 Grotes	=	A Petard $\frac{9}{80}$	6 Petards	=	* A Scalin 5d. $\frac{2}{7}$	7 Petards	=	A Scalin 6d. $\frac{3}{16}$	40 Grotes	=	* A Florin 1s. 6d.	17 ½ Scalings	=	A Ducat 9s. 3d.	240 Grots	=	* A Pound Flem. 9s.
HOLLAND & ZEALAND	Amſterdam, Rotterdam, &c. Middleburg, Fluſhing, &c.	* A Pening ☞ $\frac{21}{1280}$	8 Peningens =	* A Grot $\frac{21}{160}$	2 Grotes	=	A Stiver 1d. $\frac{1}{20}$	6 Stivers	=	A Scalin 6d. $\frac{3}{16}$	20 Stivers	=	A Guilder 1s. 9d.	50 Stivers	=	A Rix-dollar 4s. 4d. $\frac{1}{2}$	60 Stivers	=	A Dry Guilder 5s. 3d.	105 Stivers	=	A Ducat 9s. 3d.	6 Guilders	=	* A Pound Flem. 10s. 6d.
GERMANY.	Hamburgh, Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c.	* A Trying ☞ $\frac{1}{384}$	2 Trylings =	* A Sexling $\frac{1}{64}$	2 Sexlings =	A Fening $\frac{3}{256}$	12 Fenings	=	A Shilling Lub 1d. $\frac{1}{8}$	16 Shillings	=	* A Marc 1s. 6d.	2 Marcs	=	A Slet Dollar 3s.	3 Marcs	=	A Rix-dollar 4s. 6d.	6 ¼ Marcs	=	A Ducat 9s. 4d. $\frac{8}{9}$	120 Shillings	=	* A Pound Flem. 11s. 3d.
	HANOVER, LUNENBURGH, Zell, &c.	* A Fening ☞ $\frac{3}{512}$	3 Fenings =	A Dreyer $\frac{3}{128}$	8 Fenings =	A Marien 1d. $\frac{1}{2}$	12 Fenings	=	A Groſh 1d. $\frac{3}{4}$	8 Groſhen	=	A Half Gulden 1s. 2d.	16 Groſhen	=	A Gulden 2s. 4d.	24 Groſhen	=	* Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	32 Groſhen	=	A double Gulden 4s. 8d.	4 Guldens	=	A Ducat 9s. 2d.
	SAXONY and HOLSTEIN	Dreſden, Leipſig, &c. Wiſmar, Keil, &c.	* An Heller ☞ $\frac{3}{768}$	2 Hellers =	A Fening $\frac{3}{384}$	6 Hellers =	A Dreyer $\frac{3}{128}$	16 Hellers	=	A Marien 1d. $\frac{1}{8}$	12 Fenings	=	A Groſh 1d. $\frac{3}{4}$	16 Groſhen	=	A Gould 2s. 4d.	24 Groſhen	=	* A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	32 Groſhen	=	A Specie Dollar 4s. 8d.	4 Goulds	=	A Ducat 9s. 4d.
	BRANDENBURGH and POMERANIA	Berlin, Potſdam, &c. Stetin, &c.	* A Denier ☞ $\frac{1}{2560}$	9 Deniers =	A Polchen $\frac{1}{320}$	18 Deniers =	A Groſh $\frac{1}{160}$	3 Polchens	=	An Abraſs $\frac{1}{80}$	20 Groſhen	=	* A Marc 9d. $\frac{1}{2}$	30 Groſhen	=	A Florin 1s. 2d.	90 Groſhen	=	* A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	108 Groſhen	=	An Albertus 4s. 2d.	8 Florens	=	A Ducat 9s. 4d.
	COLOGN, MENTZ, TRIERS, LIEGE, Munich, Munſter, Paderborn, &c.	A Dute ☞ $\frac{1}{640}$	3 Dutes =	A Cruitzer $\frac{3}{320}$	2 Cruitzers =	An Albus $\frac{3}{160}$	8 Dutes	=	A Stiver $\frac{3}{80}$	3 Stivers	=	A Plapert 2d. $\frac{1}{10}$	4 Plaperts	=	A Copſtuck 8d. $\frac{2}{5}$	40 Stivers	=	A Guilder 2s. 4d.	2 Guilders	=	A Hard Dollar 4s. 8d.	4 Guilders	=	A Ducat 9s. 3d.
	BOHEMIA, SILESIA, and HUNGARY	Prague, Breſlaw, Preſburgh, &c.	A Fening ☞ $\frac{3}{640}$	2 Fenings =	A Dreyer $\frac{3}{320}$	3 Fenings =	A Groſh $\frac{3}{160}$	4 Fenings	=	A Cruitzer $\frac{3}{80}$	2 Cruitzers	=	A White Groſh $\frac{1}{14}$	60 Cruitzers	=	A Gould 2s. 4d.	90 Cruitzers	=	* A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	2 Goulds	=	A Hard Dollar 4s. 8d.	4 Goulds	=	A Ducat 9s. 4d.
	AUSTRIA & SWABIA	Vienna, Trieſte, &c. Augſburg, Blenheim, &c.	A Fening ☞ $\frac{3}{640}$	3 Fenings =	A Dreyer $\frac{3}{320}$	4 Fenings =	A Cruitzer $\frac{3}{160}$	14 Fenings	=	A Groſh 1d. $\frac{19}{28}$	4 Cruitzers	=	A Batzen 1d. $\frac{1}{2}$	15 Batzen	=	A Gould 2s. 4d.	90 Cruitzers	=	* A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	30 Batzen	=	A Specie Dollar 4s. 8d.	60 Batzen	=	A Ducat 9s. 4d.
	FRANCONIA, Francfort, Nuremberg, Dettingen, &c.	A Fening ☞ $\frac{3}{640}$	4 Fenings =	A Cruitzer $\frac{3}{160}$	3 Cruitzers =	A Keyſer Groſh 1d. $\frac{3}{5}$	4 Cruitzers	=	A Batzen 1d. $\frac{12}{14}$	15 Cruitzers	=	An Ort Gould 7d.	60 Cruitzers	=	A Gould 2s. 4d.	90 Cruitzers	=	* A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	2 Goulds	=	A Hard Dollar 4s. 8d.	240 Cruitzers	=	A Ducat 9s. 4d.
POLAND and PRUSSIA	Cracow, Warſaw, &c. Dantzic, Koningſberg, &c.	A Shelon ☞ $\frac{3}{512}$	3 Shelons =	A Groſh $\frac{3}{160}$	5 Groſhen =	A Couſtic 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$	3 Couſtics	=	A Tinſe 7d.	18 Groſhen	=	An Ort 8d. $\frac{3}{4}$	30 Groſhen	=	A Florin 1s. 2d.	90 Groſhen	=	* A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	8 Florins	=	A Ducat 9s. 2d.	5 Rix-dollars	=	A Frederic d'Or 17 s.
LIVONIA, Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.		A Blacken ☞ $\frac{3}{640}$	6 Blackens =	A Groſh $\frac{3}{160}$	9 Blackens =	A Vording $\frac{3}{80}$	2 Groſhen	=	A Whiten 1d. $\frac{1}{4}$	6 Groſhen	=	A Marc 2d. $\frac{2}{3}$	30 Groſhen	=	A Florin 1s. 2d.	90 Groſhen	=	* A Rix-dollar 3s. 6d.	108 Groſhen	=	An Albertus 4s. 2d.	64 Whitens	=	A Copper Plate Dollar 5s.
DENMARK, ZEALAND & NORWAY	Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.	A Skilling ☞ $\frac{9}{640}$	6 Skillings =	A Duggen 3d. $\frac{3}{4}$	16 Skillings =	* A Marc 9d.	20 Skillings	=	A Rixmarc 11d. $\frac{4}{5}$	24 Skillings	=	A Rix-ort 1s. 1d. $\frac{1}{5}$	4 Marcs	=	A Crown 3s.	6 Marcs	=	A Rix-dollar 4s. 6d.	11 Marks	=	A Ducat 8s. 3d.	14 Marcs	=	A Matt Ducat 10s. 6d.
SWEDEN and LAPLAND	Stockholm, Upſal, &c. Thorn, &c.	* A Runſtick ☞ $\frac{7}{320}$	2 Runſticks =	A Stiver $\frac{7}{80}$	8 Runſticks =	A Copper Marc 1d. $\frac{4}{5}$	3 Copper Marcs	=	A Silver Marc 4d. $\frac{3}{5}$	4 Copper Marcs	=	A Copper Dollar 6d. $\frac{3}{5}$	9 Copper Marcs	=	A Caroline 1s. 2d.	3 Copper Dollars	=	A Silver Dollar 1s. 6d. $\frac{3}{5}$	3 Silver Dollars	=	A Rix-dollar 4s. 8d.	2 Rix-dollars	=	A Ducat 9s. 3d.
RUSSIA and MOSCOVY	Peterſburg, Archangel, &c. Moſcow, &c.	A Poluſca ☞ $\frac{3}{1600}$	2 Poluſcas =	A Denuſca $\frac{3}{800}$	2 Denuſcas =	* A Copec $\frac{3}{400}$	3 Copecs	=	An Altin 1d. $\frac{11}{20}$	10 Copecs	=	A Grievener 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$	25 Copecs	=	A Polpotin 1s. 1d. $\frac{1}{2}$	50 Copecs	=	A Poltin 2s. 3d.	100 Copecs	=	A Ruble 4s. 6d.	2 Rubles	=	A Xervonitz 9s.
SWITZERLAND.	BASIL, ZURIC, Zug, &c.	A Rap ☞ $\frac{1}{224}$	3 Rapen =	A Fening $\frac{1}{80}$	4 Fenings =	A Cruitzer $\frac{1}{20}$	12 Fenings	=	* A Sol 1d. $\frac{1}{5}$	15 Fenings	=	A coarſe Batzen 1d. $\frac{7}{8}$	18 Fenings	=	A good Batzen 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Sols	=	* A Livre 2s. 6d.	60 Cruitzers	=	A Gulden 2s. 6d.	108 Cruitzers	=	A Rix-dollar 4s. 6d.
	ST. GALL, Appenſel, &c.	An Heller ☞ $\frac{1}{160}$	2 Hellers =	A Fening $\frac{1}{80}$	4 Fenings =	A Cruitzer $\frac{1}{20}$	12 Fenings	=	* A Sol 1d. $\frac{1}{5}$	4 Cruitzers	=	A Coarſe Batzen 1d. $\frac{7}{8}$	5 Cruitzers	=	A good Batzen 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Sols	=	* A Livre 2s. 6d.	60 Cruitzers	=	A Gould 2s. 6d.	102 Cruitzers	=	A Rix-dollar 4s. 3d.
	BERN, LUCERN, Neufchatel, &c.	A Denier ☞ $\frac{1}{160}$	4 Deniers =	A Cruitzer $\frac{2}{5}$	3 Cruitzers =	* A Sol 1d. $\frac{1}{5}$	4 Cruitzers	=	A Plapert 1d. $\frac{1}{4}$	5 Cruitzers	=	A Gros 2d.	6 Cruitzers	=	A Batzen 2d. $\frac{3}{4}$	20 Sols	=	* A Livre 2s.	75 Cruitzers	=	A Gulden 2s. 6d.	135 Cruitzers	=	A Crown 4s. 6d.
	GENEVA, Pekay, Bonne, &c.	A Denier ☞ $\frac{1}{192}$	2 Deniers =	A Denier current $\frac{1}{128}$	12 Deniers =	A Small Sol $\frac{1}{8}$	12 Deniers current	=	A Sol current $\frac{1}{4}$	12 ſmall Sols	=	* A Florin 4d. $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Sols current	=	* A Livre current 1s. 3d.	10 ½ Florins	=	A Patacon 3s. 11d. $\frac{1}{2}$	15 ½ Florins	=	A Croiſade 5s. 10d. $\frac{1}{2}$	24 Florins	=	A Ducat 9s.
FRANCE and NAVARRE	Liſle, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.	A Denier ☞ $\frac{1}{192}$	12 Deniers =	A Sol $\frac{1}{8}$	15 Deniers =	* A Patard $\frac{1}{8}$	15 Patards	=	* A Piette 9d. $\frac{3}{4}$	20 Sols	=	A Livre Tournois 10d.	20 Patards	=	* A Florin 1s. 0d. $\frac{1}{2}$	60 Sols	=	An Ecu of Ex. 2s. 6d.	10 ½ Livres	=	A Ducat 9s. 3d.	24 Livres	=	A Louis d'Or 1l.
	Dunkirk, St. Omer's, St. Quintin, &c.	A Denier ☞ $\frac{1}{224}$	12 Deniers =	A Sol $\frac{1}{7}$	15 Deniers =	* A Patard $\frac{1}{7}$	15 Sols	=	* A Piette 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Sols	=	* A Livre Tournois 10d.	3 Livres	=	An Ecu of Ex. 2s. 6d.	24 Livres	=	A Louis d'Or 1l.	24 Livres	=	A Guinea 1l. 1s.	30 ½ Livres	=	A Moeda 3l. 7s.
	Paris, Lyon, Marſeilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.	A Denier ☞ $\frac{1}{224}$	3 Deniers =	A Liard $\frac{1}{8}$	2 Liards =	A Dardene $\frac{1}{4}$	12 Deniers	=	A Sol $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Sols	=	* A Livre Tournois 10d.	60 Sols	=	An Ecu of Ex. 2s. 6d.	6 Livres	=	An Ecu 5s.	10 Livres	=	* A piſtole 8s. 4d.	24 Livres	=	A Louis d'Or 1l.
PORTUGAL, Liſbon, Oporto, &c.		* A Re ☞ $\frac{27}{4000}$	10 Rez =	A Half Vintin $\frac{27}{400}$	20 Rez =	A Vintin 1d. $\frac{27}{80}$	5 Vintins	=	A Teſtoon 6d. $\frac{3}{4}$	4 Teſtoons	=	A Cruſade of Ex. 2s. 3d.	24 Vintins	=	A New Cruſade 2s. 8d. $\frac{3}{4}$	10 Teſtoons	=	* A Milre 5s. 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$	48 Teſtoons	=	A Moeda 1l. 7s.	64 Teſtoons	=	A Joancie 1l. 16s.
SPAIN and CATALONIA	Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. New Plate,	A Maravedie ☞ $\frac{43}{3712}$	2 Maravedies =	A Quartil $\frac{43}{1856}$	34 Maravedies =	A Rial 5d. $\frac{1}{8}$	2 Rials	=	A Piſtarine 10d. $\frac{3}{4}$	8 Rials	=	* A Piaſtre of Ex. 3s. 7d.	10 Rials	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	375 Maravedies	=	* A Ducat of Ex. 4s. 11d. $\frac{1}{2}$	32 Rials	=	* A Piſtole of Ex. 14s. 4d.	36 Rials	=	A Piſtole 16s. 9d.
	Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c. Velon, —	* A Maravedie ☞ $\frac{43}{3712}$	2 Maravedies =	An Ochavo $\frac{43}{1856}$	4 Maravedies =	A Quartil $\frac{43}{928}$	34 Maravedies	=	* A Rial Velon 2d. $\frac{7}{8}$	15 Rials	=	* A Piaſtre of Ex. 3s. 7d.	512 Maravedies	=	A Piaſtre 3s. 7d.	60 Rials	=	* Piſtole of Ex. 14s. 4d.	2048 Maravedies	=	A Piſtole of Ex. 14s. 4d.	70 Rials	=	A Piſtole 16s. 9d.
	Barcelona, Saragoſſa, Valencia, &c. Old Plate,	A Maravedie ☞ $\frac{27}{1238}$	16 Maravedies =	A Soldo 3d. $\frac{3}{4}$	2 Soldos =	A Rial old Plate 6d. $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Soldos	=	* A Libra 5s. 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$	24 Soldos	=	* A Ducat 6s. 9d.	16 Soldos	=	* A Dollar 4s. 6d.	22 Soldos	=	* A Ducat 6s. 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$	21 Soldos	=	* A Ducat 5s. 10d. $\frac{1}{2}$	60 Soldos	=	A Piſtole 16s. 9d.
ITALY.	GENOA, Novi, St. Remo, &c. CORSICA, Baſtia, &c.	A Denari ☞ $\frac{41}{12800}$	12 Denari =	A Soldi $\frac{41}{1600}$	4 Soldi =	A chevalet 1d. $\frac{18}{25}$	20 Soldi	=	* A Lire 8d. $\frac{1}{2}$	30 Soldi	=	A Teſtoon 1s. 0d. $\frac{9}{10}$	5 Lires	=	A Croiſade 3s. 7d.	115 Soldi	=	* A Pezzo of Ex. 4s. 2d.	6 Teſtoons	=	A Genouine 6s. 2d. $\frac{3}{7}$	20 Lires	=	A Piſtole 14s. 4d.
	PIEDMONT, SAVOY, and SARDINIA	Turin, Chamberry, Cagliary, &c.	A Denari ☞ $\frac{1}{1280}$	3 Denari =	A Quatrini $\frac{3}{320}$	12 Denari =	A Soldi 9d.	12 Soldi	=	* A Florin 1s. 3d.	20 Soldi	=	* A Lire 1s. 3d.	6 Florins	=	A Scudi 4s. 6d.	7 Florins	=	A Ducatoon 5s. 3d.	13 Lires	=	A Piſtole 16s. 3d.	16 Lires	=	A Louis d'Or 1l.
	MILAN, MODENA, PARMA, PAVIA, &c.		A Denari ☞ $\frac{3}{3840}$	3 Denari =	A Quatrini $\frac{9}{640}$	12 Denari =	A Soldi $\frac{15}{64}$	20 Soldi	=	* A Lire 8d. $\frac{3}{4}$	115 Soldi	=	A Scudi current 4s. 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$	117 Soldi	=	* A Scudi of Ex. 4s. 3d.	6 Lires	=	A Philip 4s. 4d. $\frac{1}{2}$	22 Lires	=	A Piſtole 16s.	23 Lires	=	A Spaniſh Piſtole 16s. 9d.
	LEGHORN, FLORENCE, &c.		A Denari ☞ $\frac{5}{1440}$	4 Denari =	A Quatrini $\frac{5}{320}$	12 Denari =	A Soldi $\frac{5}{16}$	5 Quatrini	=	A Craca 2s. 6d.	8 Cracas	=	A Quilo 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Soldi	=	* A Lire 8d. $\frac{3}{4}$	6 Lires	=	A Piaſtre of Ex. 4s. 2d.	7 ½ Lires	=	A Ducat 5s. 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$	22 Lires	=	A Piſtole 15s. 6d.
	ROME, Civita Vechia, Ancona, &c.		A Quatrini ☞ $\frac{3}{800}$	5 Quatrini =	A Bayoc $\frac{1}{2}$	8 Bayocs =	A Julio 6d.	10 Bayocs	=	A ſtampt Julio 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$	24 Bayocs	=	A Teſtoon 1s. 6d.	10 Julios	=	A Crown current 5s.	12 Julios	=	* A Crown ſtampt 6s.	18 Julios	=	A Chequin 9s.	31 Julios	=	A Piſtole 15s. 6d.
	NAPLES, Gaieta, Capua, &c.		A Quatrini ☞ $\frac{5}{1280}$	3 Quatrini =	A Grain $\frac{5}{128}$	10 Grains =	A Carlin 4d.	40 Quatrini	=	A Paulo 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Grains	=	A Tarin 8d.	40 Grains	=	A Teſtoon 1s. 4d.	100 Grains	=	A Ducat of Ex. 3s. 4d.	23 Tarins	=	A Piſtole 15s. 4d.	25 Tarins	=	A Span. Piſtole 16s. 9d.
	SICILY and MALTA, Palermo, Meſſina, &c.		A Pichila ☞ $\frac{1}{160}$	6 Pichila =	A Grain $\frac{3}{128}$	8 Pichili =	A Ponti $\frac{3}{16}$	10 Grains	=	A Carlin 1d. $\frac{7}{10}$	20 Grains	=	A Tarin 3d. $\frac{1}{2}$	6 Tarins	=	* A Florin of Ex. 1s. 6d. $\frac{1}{2}$	13 Tarins	=	A Ducat of Ex. 3s. 4d.	60 Carlins	=	* An Ounce 7s. 8d. $\frac{2}{3}$	2 Ounces	=	A Piſtole 15s. 4d.
	BOLOGNA, Ravenna, &c.		A Quatrini ☞ $\frac{1}{160}$	6 Quatrini =	A Bayoc $\frac{3}{5}$	10 Bayocs =	A Julio 6d.	20 Bayocs	=	* A Lire 1s.	3 Julios	=	A Teſtoon 1s. 6d.	85 Bayocs	=	A Scudi of Ex. 4s. 3d.	105 Bayocs	=	A Ducatoon 5s. 3d.	100 Bayocs	=	A Crown 5s.	31 Julios	=	A Piſtole 15s. 6d.
	VENICE, Bergham, &c.		A Picoli ☞ $\frac{1}{16}$	12 Picoli =	A Soldi $\frac{1}{1}$	6 ½ Soldi =	* A Gros 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$	18 Soldi	=	A Jule 6d.	20 Soldi	=	* A Lire 6d. $\frac{3}{4}$	3 Jules	=	A Teſtoon 1s. 6d.	124 Soldi	=	A Ducat current 3s. 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$	24 Gros	=	* A Ducat of Ex. 4s. 4d.	17 Lires	=	A Chequin 9s. 2d.
TURKEY, MOREA, CANDIA, CYPRUS, &c.			A Mangar ☞ $\frac{3}{256}$	4 Mangars =	* An Aſper $\frac{3}{4}$	3 Aſpers =	A Parac 1d. $\frac{3}{4}$	5 Aſpers	=	A Beſtic 3d.	10 Aſpers	=	An Oſtic 6d.	20 Aſpers	=	A Solota 1s.	80 Aſpers	=	* A Piaſtre 4s.	100 Aſpers	=	A Caragrouch 5s.	10 Solotas	=	A Xeriff 10s.

ASIA.

MOGOL.

ARABIA, Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.		A Carret ☞ $\frac{1}{5}$	5 ½ Carrets =	A Caveer $\frac{11}{200}$	7 Carrets =	A Comaſhee $\frac{8}{9}$	80 Carrets	=	A Larin 10d. $\frac{1}{2}$	18 Comaſhees	=	An Abyſs 1s. 4d. $\frac{1}{2}$	60 Comaſhees	=	* A Piaſtre 4s. 6d.	80 Caveers	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	100 Comaſhees	=	A Sequin 7s. 6d.	80 Larins	=	* A Tomond 3l. 7s. 6d.
PERSIA, Iſpahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.		A Coz ☞ $\frac{1}{5}$	4 Coz =	A Biſti 1d. $\frac{1}{4}$	10 Coz =	A Shahee 4d.	20 Coz	=	A Mamooda 8d.	25 Coz	=	A Larin 10d.	4 Shahees	=	An Abaſhee 1s. 4d.	5 Abaſhees	=	An Or 6s. 8d.	12 Abaſhees	=	A Bovello 16s.	50 Abaſhees	=	* A Tomond 3l. 6s. 8d.
MOGOL.	GUZZURAT, Surat, Cambay, &c.	A Pecka ☞ $\frac{15}{640}$	2 Peckas =	A Pice $\frac{15}{320}$	4 Pices =	A Fanam 1d. $\frac{1}{2}$	5 Pices	=	A Viz 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$	16 Pices	=	An Ana 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$	4 Anas	=	A Rupee 2s. 6d.	2 Rupees	=	An Engliſh crown 5s.	14 Anas	=	A Pagoda 8s. 9d.	4 Pagodas	=	A Gold Rupee 1l. 15s.
	MALABAR — Bombay, Dabul, &c.	* A Budgrook ☞ $\frac{27}{1600}$	2 Budgrooks =	* A Re $\frac{27}{800}$	5 Rex =	A Pice $\frac{27}{320}$	16 Pices	=	A Laree 5d. $\frac{2}{3}$	20 Pices	=	A Quarter 6d. $\frac{3}{4}$	240 Rez	=	A Xeraphim 1s. 4d. $\frac{1}{2}$	4 Quarters	=	A Rupee 2s. 3d.	14 Quarters	=	A Pagoda 8s.	60 Quarters	=	A Gold Rupee 1l. 15s.
	MALABAR — Goa, Viſapour, &c.	* A Re ☞ $\frac{27}{1600}$	2 Rez =	A Bazaraco $\frac{27}{800}$	2 Bazaracos =	A Pecka $\frac{27}{400}$	20 Rez	=	A Vintin 1d. $\frac{7}{10}$	4 Vintins	=	A Laree 5d. $\frac{2}{3}$	3 Larees	=	A Xeraphim 1s. 4d. $\frac{1}{2}$	42 Vintins	=	A Tangu 4s. 6d.	4 Tangus	=	A Paru 18s.	8 Tangus	=	A Gold Rupee 1l. 15s.
	COROMANDEL, Madraſs, Pondicherry, &c.	A Caſh ☞ $\frac{3}{80}$	5 Caſh =	A Viz $\frac{3}{16}$	2 Viz =	A Pice $\frac{3}{8}$	6 Pices	=	A Pical 2d. $\frac{1}{2}$	8 Pices	=	A Fanam 3d.	10 Fanams	=	A Rupee 2s. 6d.	2 Rupees	=	An Engliſh Crown 5s.	36 Fanams	=	A Pagoda 8s. 9d.	4 Pagodas	=	A Gold Rupee 1l. 15s.
	BENGAL, Callicut, Calcutta, &c.	A Pice ☞ $\frac{1}{13}$	4 Pices =	A Panam $\frac{1}{8}$	6 Pices =	A Viz $\frac{1}{16}$	12 Pices	=	An Ana 1d. $\frac{7}{8}$	10 Anas	=	A Piano 1s. 6d. $\frac{1}{2}$	16 Anas	=	A Rupee 2s. 6d.	2 Rupees	=	A French Ecu 5s.	2 Rupees	=	An Engliſh Crown 5s.	56 Anas	=	A Pagoda 8s. 9d.
SIAM, PEGU, MALACCA, CAMBODIA, SUMATRA, JAVA, BORNEO, &c.		A Con ☞ $\frac{27}{160000}$	800 Cori =	A Fettee $\frac{27}{200}$	125 Fettees =	A Sateleer 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$	250 Fettees	=	A Sooco 1s. 3d.	500 Fettees	=	A tutal 2s. 6d.	1000 Fettees	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	2 Ticals	=	A Rial 5s.	4 Soocos	=	An Ecu 5s.	8 Sateleers	=	A Crown 5s.
CHINA, Pekin, Canton, &c.		A Caxa ☞ $\frac{3}{5}$	10 Caxa =	A Candereen $\frac{3}{4}$	10 Candereens =	A Mace 8d.	35 Candereens	=	A Rupee 2s. 6d.	2 Rupees	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	70 Candereens	=	A Rixdollar 4s. 4d. $\frac{1}{2}$	7 Maces	=	An Ecu 5s.	2 Rupees	=	A Crown 5s.	10 Maces	=	* A Tale 6s. 8d.
JAPAN, Jeddo, Meaco, &c.		A Piti ☞ $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Pitis =	A Mace 4d.	15 Maces =	An Ounce Silver 4s. 10d. $\frac{1}{2}$	20 Maces	=	A Tale 6s. 8d.	30 Maces	=	An Ingot 9s. 8d. $\frac{3}{4}$	13 Ounces Silver	=	An Ounce Gold 3l. 3s.	2 Ounces Gold	=	A Japaneſe 6l. 6s.	2 Japaneſes	=	A Double 12l. 12s.	21 Ounces Gold	=	* A Cattee 66l. 3s.

AFRIC.

EGYPT, Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.		An Aſper ☞ $\frac{1}{2}$	3 Aſpers =	A Medin 1d. $\frac{3}{4}$	24 Medins =	An Ital. Ducat 3s. 4d.	80 Aſpers	=	* A Piaſtre 4s.	30 Medins	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	96 Aſpers	=	An Ecu 5s.	32 Medins	=	A Crown 5s.	200 Aſpers	=	A Sultanin 10s.	70 Medins	=	* A Pargo Dollar 10s. 6d.
BARBARY, ALGIERS, TUNIS, TRIPOLI, Una, &c.		An Aſper ☞ $\frac{1}{2}$	3 Aſpers =	A Medin 1d. $\frac{3}{4}$	10 Aſpers =	A Rial old Plate 6d. $\frac{1}{2}$	2 Rials	=	A Double 1s. 1d. $\frac{1}{2}$	4 Doubles	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	24 Medins	=	A Silver Chequin 3s. 4d.	30 Medins	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	180 Aſpers	=	A Zequin 8s. 10d.	15 Doubles	=	A Piſtole 16s. 9d.
MOROCCO, Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangiers, Sallee, &c.		A Fluce ☞ $\frac{1}{12}$	24 Fluces =	A Blanquil 2d.	4 Blanquils =	An Ounce 8d.	7 Blanquils	=	An Octavo 1s. 2d.	14 Blanquils	=	A Quarto 2s. 4d.	2 Quartos	=	A Medio 4s. 8d.	28 Blanquils	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	54 Blanquils	=	A Xequin 9s.	100 Blanquils	=	A Piſtole 16s. 9d.

AMERICA.

WEST-INDIES	ENGLISH, JAMAICA, BARBADOES, &c. —	* A Halfpenny ☞ $\frac{5}{1280}$	2 Halfpence =	* A Penny $\frac{17}{640}$	7 ½ Pence =	A Bit 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$	12 Pence	=	* A Shilling 8d. $\frac{1}{10}$	75 Pence	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	7 Shillings	=	A Crown 5s.	20 Shillings	=	* A Pound 14s. 3d.	24 Shillings	=	A Piſtole 16s. 9d.	30 Shillings	=	A Guinea 1l. 1s.
	FRENCH, ST. DOMINGO, MARTINICO, &c.	* Half-Sol ☞ $\frac{117}{1280}$	2 Half-Sols =	* A Sol $\frac{117}{640}$	7 ½ Sols =	A Half-Scalin 2d. $\frac{11}{16}$	15 Sols	=	A Scalin 5d. $\frac{3}{4}$	20 Sols	=	* A Livre 7d. $\frac{1}{10}$	7 Livres	=	A Dollar 4s. 6d.	8 Livres	=	An Ecu 4s. 10d. $\frac{1}{2}$	26 Livres	=	A Piſtole 16s. 9d.	32 Livres	=	A Louis d'Or 1l.
CONTINENT	ENGLISH, NOVA SCOTIA, NEW-ENGLAND, VIRGINIA, &c.	* A Penny ☞	12 Pence =	* A Shilling	20 Shillings =	* A Pound	2 Pounds	3 Pounds	4 Pounds	5 Pounds	6 Pounds	7 Pounds	8 Pounds	9 P